THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

VOLUME XXXVII OCTOBER 1936 NUMBER 2

Educational News and Editorial Comment

A PROGRAM FOR FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

In a recent volume entitled *Federal Support for Public Education*, Professor Paul R. Mort, of Teachers College, Columbia University, outlines in detail a program for federal participation in the support of education in the states. The program is based on the findings of a series of researches carried out under Professor Mort's supervision during the past two years. The two basic principles which, it is thought, should govern the distribution of federal aid are discussed: (1) the equalization principle and (2) the efficiency principle. In order that centralization of control of education may be avoided, a formula has been worked out for the distribution of federal funds which leaves absolutely no discretion to any administrative official in Washington. On this point the report reads:

> If undesirable controls are to be avoided, the exact methods of determining the amount of aid and the conditions under which it is to be granted must be defined in the law, and the measures of need and ability must be defined so specifically that any two competent persons applying them will get the same results. Furthermore, the measures employed must have a high degree of equity and take into consideration all important factors to guard against the need for granting to a central agency the power to make adjustments.

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Even if objective measures were to become less effective than the *best* use of discretionary power, there is strong argument in favor of their use. Something in equity may, if necessary, be sacrificed to safeguard local rights.

The following paragraphs indicate the general scope of the plan and the principles upon which it is based.

The method recommended for federal aid based on a $15 foundation program is developed from (1) a consideration of the demands of the equalization and efficiency principles in financing the defensible $60 foundation program; (2) the various methods that have been devised for expanding from a low beginning foundation program toward a defensible foundation program; (3) possible demands for federal aid to state and local governmental functions other than education; and (4) the mathematical relationship between certain types of central aid plans and distribution back to local units of taxes paid in such units to the central government. . . . .

The proposed plan calls for (1) the equalization of the support of a national foundation program of education through general federal aid and (2) assistance in modernizing the rural school plants of the nation by means of special federal aid.

An extremely low national foundation program is proposed as a first step. Expansion toward a higher and more adequate program is proposed, for consummation over a period of years. The rate of expansion is to depend upon the rate of educational improvement in states at the low end of the expenditure scale.

Federal aid for current expenses.—As soon as it proves feasible, the federal government should provide $300,000,000 annually toward the support of public education in the various states and territories. This aid should be distributed with due consideration for the educational need of each state and territory and its relative ability to pay taxes. Educational need should be determined basically in terms of average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools. To this basic figure should be added corrections for higher costs in high schools, higher costs due to sparsity of population, as reflected in smaller classes, need for transportation or need for board and room, and higher costs of personal service due to higher costs of living in certain types of communities. Ability to pay taxes should represent ability under as nearly ideal a system of taxation as can be applied practically.

The $300,000,000 annual federal aid should be distributed so as to provide to states a flat grant of $6 per weighted pupil unit, the equalization of a $15 foundation program, and a guaranty of 20 per cent of ultimate aid under a really defensible program. These provisions would be as follows:

1. *A $6 flat grant.* Sixty-four per cent of the $300,000,000, or $190,000,000, should be distributed to the states and territories on the basis of $6 per weighted pupil unit.

2. *A $15 equalization guaranty.* Aid over and above $6 per weighted pupil should be granted to the least able states. The total aid should be sufficient in amount to make possible a foundation program costing $15 per weighted pupil, without using in any state more state and local funds than could be justified by the relative abilities of the respective states to raise state and local tax revenue.

3. *A guaranty of 20 per cent of the ultimate federal aid.* Further aid should be granted any state where the amounts allotted above do not equal 20 per cent of the aid which they would receive if the federal government chose to equalize a foundation program of sufficient extent to be really defensible as a national foundation program.

The amount of aid to be received by any state or territory under the operation of the above plan would vary from $6 per weighted elementary pupil in the three ablest states to $11.84 in the least able state. . . . .

Federal aid for rehousing rural schools.—A special federal-aid program should be enacted for the rehousing of rural schools. This law should carry certain minimum provisions with respect to size of school attendance units under varying conditions, and should place on each state the responsibility of making the necessary surveys for laying out the placement of new schools. When a community agrees to the changes recommended, liberal federal aid should be granted toward the construction of the centralized school or schools.

One of the major purposes of federal aid to education in the states is to equalize more nearly educational opportunity. If this end is to be accomplished, certain essential factors must be taken into consideration. One of these factors is the unequal distribution of the burden of child care and education. Because of differentials in reproduction, the supporting adult population in some states is carrying a burden of young dependents fully twice as great as that carried in other states. By way of illustration, in a number of selected states the number of children of school age (five to seventeen) per thousand adults (twenty to sixty-four) is as follows:[1]

South Carolina	739	California	319
North Carolina	691	Nevada	332
Alabama	628	New York	363
Georgia	617	Washington	383
Mississippi	615	Illinois	389
Utah	612	Maryland and D.C.	392

[1] The data on population and income which appear in this item are taken from unpublished studies made by the editor.

Obviously, the situation faced by the supporting adult group in South Carolina in caring for its young dependents is very different from that faced by the supporting adult group in California. This imbalance in the distribution of the child population among supporting adult groups conditions fundamentally the ability of the states to provide adequate educational facilities. The situation is aggravated all the more by a corresponding imbalance in the distribution of the national income because, quite without exception, in those areas where the ratio of children to adults is the highest, the level of living is the lowest and economic resources are the most limited. Take South Carolina and California as illustrations. For each 1,000 adults in South Carolina there are 739 children of school age; in California there are only 319 children for each 1,000 adults. South Carolina has the responsibility of caring for and educating 1.86 per cent of the nation's children of school age, and she must do so on 0.50 per cent of the nation's income. California has 3.61 per cent of the nation's children and receives 6.56 per cent of the total national income. In South Carolina the income per child of school age is $767; in California it is $5,264. The conclusion is inescapable that many of the states are unable to support schools at all comparable with those maintained in other states. They are unable to provide adequate schools because they are carrying a burden of child care and education out of all proportion to that borne by other states and because their economic resources are extremely limited. Obviously, any program of federal aid must be judged in large part on the basis of its effectiveness in equalizing the burden of education. An examination of the practical operation of Professor Mort's proposed plan raises grave doubt that it goes far enough by way of equalizing educational opportunity.

The initial step in the proposed program calls for an annual grant by the federal government for the aid of education in the states, the amount granted to each state to be determined on the basis of the formula previously quoted. In order to get a clearer idea of the practical operation of the formula as a means of more nearly equalizing the burden of child care and education in the states, we made certain calculations which are presented in the accompanying table. Table I shows for each major region and for each state the ratio of children

TABLE I

DATA SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN BURDEN OF CHILD CARE IN THE STATES AND AMOUNT OF FEDERAL AID ASSIGNED BY MORT'S PLAN

Region and State	Number of Children per 1,000 Adults	Percentage of Nation's Children	Percentage of National Income	Income per Child of School Age	Amount per Child Assigned by Mort's Plan
Southeast	603	24.43	10.01	$1,186	$ 9.51
Virginia	583	2.27	1.14	1,457	9.77
North Carolina	691	3.26	1.09	965	10.15
South Carolina	739	1.86	0.50	767	9.60
Georgia	617	2.83	1.09	1,117	9.31
Florida	461	1.20	0.86	2,077	9.68
Kentucky	569	2.39	1.13	1,377	8.69
Tennessee	558	2.38	0.98	1,197	9.67
Alabama	628	2.59	0.95	1,067	8.93
Mississippi	615	1.94	0.63	936	11.04
Arkansas	602	1.77	0.63	1,027	9.08
Louisiana	551	1.92	1.00	1,507	8.62
Southwest	537	8.13	5.22	1,857	11.27
Oklahoma	562	2.20	1.31	1,719	10.88
Texas	524	5.16	3.34	1,876	11.53
New Mexico	613	0.40	0.22	1,571	11.00
Arizona	497	0.37	0.35	2,721	10.19
Northeast	420	29.65	42.93	4,191	7.26
Maine	455	0.62	0.56	2,625	9.48
New Hampshire	421	0.35	0.33	2,774	7.61
Vermont	449	0.28	0.25	2,604	9.10
Massachusetts	403	3.17	4.51	4,125	7.59
Rhode Island	432	0.54	0.66	3,543	6.47
Connecticut	438	1.28	1.76	3,987	7.40
New York	363	8.85	18.61	6,088	5.84
New Jersey	414	3.12	4.37	4,056	6.87
Delaware	423	0.18	0.34	5,433	5.40
Pennsylvania	480	8.08	8.56	3,066	8.12
Maryland and District of Columbia	392	1.55	2.07	3,858	7.17
West Virginia	606	1.65	0.91	1,597	9.99
Middle States	423	26.05	28.38	3,153	9.70
Ohio	418	5.07	5.74	3,280	9.76
Indiana	430	2.48	2.17	2,528	11.44
Illinois	389	5.61	8.17	4,218	8.13
Michigan	433	3.79	4.53	3,466	9.32
Wisconsin	458	2.36	2.18	2,681	8.99
Minnesota	463	2.08	1.71	2,373	10.61
Iowa	451	1.95	1.31	1,950	12.03
Missouri	412	2.72	2.56	2,725	10.00
Northwest	496	6.25	4.59	2,126	13.33
North Dakota	598	0.65	0.31	1,407	14.28
South Dakota	541	0.62	0.32	1,484	13.52
Nebraska	476	1.13	0.78	2,005	13.10
Kansas	461	1.51	1.17	2,242	13.89
Montana	470	0.45	0.41	2,660	13.03
Idaho	548	0.40	0.30	2,130	13.33
Wyoming	451	0.18	0.19	3,011	14.46
Colorado	451	0.83	0.78	2,727	11.95
Utah	612	0.49	0.33	1,972	12.80

TABLE I—*Continued*

Region and State	Number of Children per 1,000 Adults	Percentage of Nation's Children	Percentage of National Income	Income per Child of School Age	Amount per Child Assigned by Mort's Plan
Far West	337	5.48	8.87	$4,688	$10.13
Nevada	332	0.06	0.10	4,735	8.10
Washington	383	1.13	1.43	3,655	11.60
Oregon	376	0.68	0.78	3,338	11.99
California	319	3.61	6.56	5,264	9.35

of school age to the supporting adult population, the percentage of the nation's children of school age found there, the percentage of the nation's income received, the income per child of school age, and the amount per child of school age that it would receive under the proposed plan of federal aid. The table reveals that the plan would not result in a generous allotment of federal funds to those states or regions in which the supporting adult population is carrying the heaviest burden of young dependents, in which the percentage of the nation's children to be educated far exceeds the percentage of the nation's income received, and in which income per child of school age is extremely low. In fact, in numerous instances exactly the opposite results would be achieved. Compare, for example, the Southeast and the Far West. In the Southeast, for each 1,000 adults in the supporting adult group there are 603 children of school age; in the Far West there are 337 children of school age for each 1,000 adults. The Southeast has 24 per cent of the nation's children of school age; the Far West, 5 per cent. The Southeast receives 10 per cent of the national income; the Far West, 8.87 per cent. Income per child of school age in the Southeast is $1,186; in the Far West, $4,688. And under the proposed plan the amount allotted per child of school age is $9.51 for the Southeast; for the Far West, $10.13. The contrasts are equally striking, if not more so, when individual states are compared. In Mississippi the ratio of children to adults is 615; in Washington, 383. Mississippi has 1.94 per cent of the nation's children of school age; Washington has 1.13 per cent. Mississippi receives 0.63 per cent of the total national income; Washington receives 1.43 per cent. Income per child in Mississippi is $936;

in Washington it is $3,655. For each child of school age the proposed plan would allocate $11.04 to Mississippi and $11.60 to Washington.

There is another body of evidence which bears on the problem. In connection with the investigation directed by Professor Mort, Professor Mabel Newcomer, an experienced tax economist, has worked out what she considers a model tax plan, and she has applied this plan to the tax resources of the various states. Using her data as a basis, one can compute the percentage of the tax resources of each state which would be required to provide for each child of school age in the state an amount equal to the amount spent per child of school age in the nation as a whole in 1930. In 1930 we spent for the education of the nation's children an amount equal to $58 per child of school age. In eight states it would have required more than 100 per cent of the taxes which could have been raised under the Newcomer model tax plan, to provide for each child of school age an amount equal to the national average expenditure. If South Carolina had spent $58, the national average, for the education of each child of school age, the state would have found it necessary to devote to education 191 per cent of its total tax resources. Similarly, Mississippi and Alabama would have had to spend 178 per cent and 163 per cent, respectively, of their tax resources. Obviously, there are a number of states which simply do not have the economic resources, try as hard as they may, to support a program of education at all comparable with that provided by other states. Whether it is sound policy to stimulate these states to spend a larger part of their resources for the support of education is indeed questionable. Liberal federal support of education in those states that need it most would seem to be the sounder policy.

We have long taken pride, and justly so, in our democratic school system. We have extended educational opportunity to our youth more generously than any other nation in the world. It is true, nevertheless, that we have suffered inequalities of educational opportunity to develop which threaten the whole fabric of our democratic institutions. Education, properly organized, contributes to equality of opportunity. It is equally true that education may become the means of creating class, racial, and regional distinctions which may be of serious import for the future. If we are to put into operation a

program of federal aid, certain it is that that program should be heavily weighted in favor of those areas where the birth-rate is the highest, where the burden of child care is the greatest, where the level of living is the lowest, where the home has least to contribute to cultural and intellectual growth, and where economic resources are the most restricted. The plan here under consideration does not appear to us to accomplish this purpose.

The Educational Status of the Population of Chicago

The Department of Public Relations of the University of Chicago has recently announced some of the major findings of a comprehensive analysis of the educational status of the people of Chicago. The investigation was directed by Richard O. Lang for the Department of Sociology. It is said to be the first accurate investigation that has yet been made of the educational status of any large population group in this country.

Mr. Lang finds that 60 per cent of Chicago's adult population has had no formal schooling beyond the eighth grade. Twenty-six and one-half per cent of the city's adults have attended high school three or more years, and 8.7 per cent have had at least one year of college work.

For the entire population of Chicago eighteen years old or above, the average grade completed in school is 8.1. The average figure for men is 8.05; for women, 8.15. Of this age group, 4.7 per cent have had no formal schooling, 6.8 per cent dropped out of school by the end of the fourth grade, 49.1 per cent did not continue their formal schooling beyond the eighth grade, 12 per cent dropped out of school after the ninth or tenth grade, 17.8 per cent left school after the eleventh or twelfth grade, and 8.7 per cent have had at least one year of college work.

The figures show some difference in the educational status of men and women. A higher percentage of women have attended high school, but a larger proportion of men have attended college. Of all the women eighteen years of age or older, 32.1 per cent have completed from one to four years of high school, as against 27.6 per cent of the men. Ten per cent of the men have had a year or more of college, as compared with 7.3 per cent of the women.

Native whites of native parentage have a somewhat higher educational status than native whites of foreign parentage. The average grade completed by native whites of native parentage is 9.3 as compared with the city-wide average of 8.1. Fifty-five per cent of all those in Chicago who have had one or more years of college were native whites of native parents. The average grade for the second-generation group, native whites of foreign or mixed parentage, was 8.42. The same figure for negroes was 7.5; for foreign born, 6.44. Only 13.8 per cent of the foreign-born have had more than an elementary-school education.

The evidence indicates that the concentration of the lowest educational status falls within the areas of poor housing near the heavy industries and the interstitial areas surrounding the central business district. Areas of low educational status are also areas of high delinquency, crime, and dependency rates. In general, there is a higher educational status among native whites and in areas where the proportion of women to men is high, where the proportion of older people is high, where mobility of families is high, and where families are small in size.

What Is America Doing to Its Rural Children?

In the September issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, we commented editorially on the challenge of the rural schools. We attempted, at some length, to show that inequalities of educational opportunity in the United States spring, in the main, from the imbalance in the distribution of the child population and from disparities in income. We are now able to present some very significant evidence which shows conclusively some of the consequences of the country's failure to provide adequate educational facilities for rural youth.

In a monograph entitled *The Child of the Texas One-Teacher School*, Annie Webb Blanton, professor of educational administration at the University of Texas, reports the results of the most intensive investigation of pupils in one-room schools that has yet been made. The study shows that pupils in one-room schools are markedly inferior to urban pupils in native ability, insofar as that ability is revealed by mental tests; that their achievement in school subjects

is decidedly lower; and that their economic-social status is below that of city children.

Professor Blanton summarizes her findings as follows:

The investigations made in this study show that, of the rural and the urban pupils studied, the rural pupils are definitely inferior to the urban pupils in ability, in school achievement, and in socio-economic and physical status.

According to the Binet-Simon intelligence tests, the median intelligence quotient of the rural pupils is 93.1 and of the urban pupils 110.5, these figures showing a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 17.4 per cent. According to the group intelligence tests, the median intelligence quotient of the rural group is 90.7 and of the urban group, 111.9, these figures indicating a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 21.2 per cent. The median intelligence quotient of the rural pupils is, approximately, on the two tests, 9 per cent below normal, while that of the urban pupils is, approximately, 10 per cent above normal.

The rural pupils, on the tests in the various branches of study pursued in the elementary school, also show a definite inferiority to the school achievements of the urban children included in this study.

In silent reading, the median reading quotient of the rural pupils is 85, and that of the urban pupils, 98.4; these figures show a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 13.4 per cent. In oral reading 84.4 per cent of the rural pupils were rated as poor in expression, while only 37.4 per cent of the urban pupils were so rated; these figures indicate an inferiority of the rural pupils of 47 per cent in expression in oral reading.

In handwriting, the median writing quotient of the rural pupils as to quality is 80 and as to speed is 96.9; the median writing quotient of the urban pupils as to quality is 102.9 and as to speed is 107.7. These figures show a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 22.9 per cent in quality and 10.8 per cent as to speed; an average inferiority in writing of 16.9 per cent.

In spelling, the median spelling quotient of the rural pupils is 94.7 and of the urban pupils 105; these figures indicate a median inferiority of the rural pupils in spelling of 10.3 per cent.

In arithmetic, it was not practicable to reduce the scores to percentages. The rural pupils showed an average of 2.3 problems in the four subjects solved correctly, as compared with the urban average of 4.3 problems in the four subjects solved correctly.

For purposes of final comparison in language, the figures in correct usage, grammar, and letter-writing will be used. The median language quotient in correct usage of the rural pupils was 100, and of the urban pupils 108.1; this shows a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 8.1 per cent. In grammar, the median grammar quotient of the rural pupils was 103.7; of the urban pupils, 160; these figures show a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 56.3 per cent. In letter-writing, the median letter-writing quotient of the rural pupils was

62.7; of the urban pupils, 93.3; these figures indicate a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 30.6 per cent.

In geography, the median geography quotient of the rural pupils is 59.6; of the urban pupils, 106.6; these figures show a median inferiority of the rural pupils of 47 per cent.

In American history, the median history quotient of the rural pupils is 110.3 and of the urban pupils 114. Here the per cent of inferiority is only 3.7 per cent, the least in any of the branches of study in which a quotient could be calculated. . . . .

It is interesting here to note that the average median inferiority of the rural pupils in the various branches of study of the elementary school does not differ greatly from their average inferiority in ability as measured by the intelligence tests.

In comparing the totals as to median physical status of the rural and the urban pupils, a very slight inferiority of rural pupils may be noted. The median rating in physical status of the rural pupils is 73.7, and of the urban pupils, 74.5; these figures give a median inferiority of the rural pupils of only eight-tenths of one per cent; the two groups may, therefore, be regarded as approximately equal in physical status, as measured by the physical tests adopted for this study.

The ratings of the two groups by the Sims Score Card in Socio-economic Status shows a median rating of 5 for the rural pupils and of 7 for the urban group. This rating places the rural pupils two strata lower in socio-economic standing than the urban pupils.

The most positive evidence in this study of a cause of the inferiority of the rural pupils to the urban pupils included in this study, is the inferiority in ability of the rural pupils and the shorter school term of approximately one month. Other causes that appear to have some influence are a slight inferiority in training of the rural teachers, poor equipment and insanitary conditions in the rural schools, and a lower socio-economic status of the rural pupils.

It is the opinion of the writer that there is a positive relation between the inferiority in ability of the rural pupils and their socio-economic status. She holds that the superior social and economic advantages of urban life have, on the whole, led to attracting to the cities a considerable proportion of the most capable young people upon the farms; the natural processes of selection have left in the rural districts a larger proportion of those inferior in ability to populate the rural districts. It is not the province of this study to suggest the remedy for this situation. But the situation is one to attract the attention of the thinking, patriotic citizens of the state.

We should like to call attention to some aspects of the educational situation in Texas to which Professor Blanton did not refer because they were outside the scope of her investigation. From a study

which we have made it appears that the rural areas of Texas cannot, for a long time to come, if ever, be expected to provide educational opportunities at all comparable with those provided in urban communities. This conclusion is based on two fundamental considerations: (1) the imbalance in the distribution of children between urban and rural communities and (2) disparities in income between rural and urban areas. In 1930, for each 1,000 adults of twenty to sixty-four years of age in the farm population of Texas, there were 495 children of elementary-school age (five to thirteen); in urban communities the number of children of elementary-school age for each 1,000 adults was 278; and in cities of 100,000 or more the number of children was 255. The farm population of Texas is carrying a burden of child care far greater than that carried in urban communities and nearly twice as great as that carried in the larger cities. And they must educate this excessive number of children on an income much less than that received in urban communities. In 1930 the income per child of school age (five to seventeen) in the farm population was $899; in the non-farm population it was $2,764. In the same year 2.45 per cent of the nation's children of school age were living on Texas farms, but Texas farmers received only 0.76 per cent of the nation's income. The non-farm children of Texas comprised 2.70 per cent of the nation's children of school age; the income of the non-farm population of Texas was 2.58 per cent of the total national income. We submit that these facts taken in connection with Blanton's study constitute a challenge to the educational statesmanship of Texas. It is here further suggested that the situation in Texas is paralleled in every other state in the nation.

Unreasonable Restrictions on Teachers' Activities

A recent bulletin of the National Education Association is entitled *Teachers' Contracts: With Special Reference to Adverse Conditions of Employment.* Contracts from practically all the states were analyzed for the purpose of discovering to what extent, if any, school boards impose unreasonable restrictions on the conduct of teachers either in school or outside the classroom. The evidence presented indicates that not a few school boards impose on teachers restrictions that are unreasonable—so unreasonable, in fact, that any group of high-school pupils would be unlikely to submit to them.

The following paragraphs are quoted from the bulletin.

In 67 per cent of the 400 teachers' contracts examined in this study a statement was included to the effect that teachers agree to abide by rules and regulations adopted by the school board. In other words, the teacher is contracted to obey whatever regulations the local school board sees fit to enforce in addition to the stipulations actually written in the contract. The most objectionable restrictions a teacher must endure are in the unwritten laws of the community, but so far as the teacher is concerned these, too, have the force of contract.

Most of the restrictions placed upon teachers by the school board are not specifically written into the contract, but they have for the teacher contractual strength since violation may mean dismissal. For example, it is written in one contract:

"You are subject to dismissal upon thirty days' notice or at any time for wilful violation of any rule of the board, or for misconduct or incompetency. All decisions of the board shall be final and not subject to review (Colorado)."

Since school-board rules were not collected in this study, letters from teachers and findings of other investigators will be depended upon for evidence as to the restrictions placed on school teachers by board rules. . . . .

Many school boards, especially in the small towns, restrict the recreational and social life of their teachers. In the larger cities there are few restrictions put upon teachers' activities outside of school, but in certain districts card-playing, dancing, smoking, and any social intercourse outside of church affairs are taboo. Smoking is forbidden Tennessee teachers by state law. The following is given as an example of an extremely restrictive local contract signed by certain North Carolina teachers:

"I promise to take a vital interest in all phases of Sunday School work, donating of my time, service, and money without stint, for the benefit and uplift of the community.

"I promise to abstain from all dancing, immodest dressing, and any other conduct unbecoming a teacher and a lady.

"I promise not to go out with any young men except insofar as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday School work.

"I promise not to fall in love, to become engaged, or secretly married. . . . ."

Many other schools have regulations which are very nearly as restrictive. Ewing tells of a male teacher in a Missouri school district who was asked to sign a resignation with his contract, the resignation becoming effective, and all salary due forfeited, if at any time or at any place during the period of the contract he should smoke a cigarette, pipe, or cigar. An Alabama school board forbids teachers to "have company or go automobile riding" on school nights. An Ohio school board forbids teachers to "go with other teachers." A Mississippi contract reads:

"It is further understood and agreed by the parties hereto that no teacher will play society to the detriment of the school or unnecessarily frolic on school nights or indulge excessively in any sort of socials during school nights, the

superintendent to be the judge in these matters and to warn teachers, and should they persist in violating this regulation, it shall be deemed sufficient cause for dismissal." . . . .

Quite a few schools write into contracts restrictions as to place of residence of teachers. For example:

"In addition to the foregoing general terms and conditions of employment you shall and are hereby required as a term and condition of employment to actually reside and maintain a legal residence within the boundaries of the ——— School District during the school term. Residence as that word is herein used shall mean a bona fide fixed habitation within the district (California).". . . .

Weltzin shows that not only the district but also the rooming place of teachers is prescribed in a few contracts. The assignment letter, constituting contract of employment in a certain district, includes the following statement: "It is an expectation on our part that teachers reside in the city at least during the five days of the week that school is in session (New York)."

Not all school boards are as generous in restricting residence to five days of the week. Several teachers' contracts in Mississippi require the teacher to spend week-ends in the district where he is employed "except at such intervals as the superintendent may designate." In some schools, teachers' meetings are called for Saturday requiring the teachers' presence. Regardless of whether school affairs occupy the week-end time of teachers, they are frequently prevented from leaving town. Anderson suggests that teachers are requested or required to stay in town over week-ends so that the community may benefit by their services.

Another restriction has reference to the use of leisure time for financial profit. In 5 per cent of the 420 contracts Stevenson examined, outside employment is forbidden. Many of these contracts stipulate that teachers should at no time during the duration of their contract accept outside remunerative work. In some contracts, exceptions are made provided the superintendent or school board approves. Despite this restriction, school salaries are not always paid promptly, and the school board reserves the right to withhold salary for any of several reasons. Nevertheless, financial integrity is demanded of teachers by school boards. In Tennessee and Virginia, second garnishment served against a teacher gives the school board the right to cancel the contract. A teacher cannot voluntarily go into bankruptcy.

No doubt many of the rules and regulations adopted by school boards and many of the provisions written into contracts with teachers are so unreasonable and arbitrary as to be illegal and unenforceable in the courts. It is a well-established legal principle that, when a teacher signs a contract, he agrees by implication to obey all reasonable rules and regulations which the board has adopted or which it may adopt, but the teacher is not bound by any board rule

that is arbitrary and unreasonable, because the board has no authority to make such a rule. Thus it was said in an Illinois case:

> The board of education is charged with the maintenance of the public schools and the employment of teachers therein. It may enact all reasonable rules for the promotion of the efficiency of the schools under its control. This power does not, however, include the power to adopt any kind of an arbitrary rule for the employment of teachers it chooses to adopt, for a rule can easily be imagined the adoption of which would be unreasonable, contrary to public policy, and on the face of it not calculated to promote the best interests and welfare of the schools. In our opinion courts would have the power, in the interest of the public good, to prohibit the enforcement of such an arbitrary rule.[1]

The case of *Horne* v. *School District of Chester*[2] is an excellent illustration of the limitations which the law imposes on school boards in making rules governing the action of teachers. In that case the school board made it a condition of employment that a teacher board at a designated place. The teacher boarded at the designated place for five weeks and then informed the school board that circumstances had arisen which made her unwilling to live there any longer. She asked to be permitted to board elsewhere but was told that she must board at the home designated if she were to remain in charge of the school. She refused to carry out the board's wishes in the matter and was discharged. In permitting the teacher to recover for breach of contract, the court said:

> The rule of the board as to the teacher's boarding place related to a matter as to which they were given no authority by existing law. . . . . Their refusal, therefore, to permit the plaintiff to continue the school with a different boarding place was unwarranted, and the plaintiff's determination to change her boarding place did not authorize them to terminate her employment as teacher.

In a number of cases, it has been held, too, that a rule providing for the dismissal of a teacher because of marriage is unreasonable and void, although there are other cases which hold such a rule reasonable.

School boards, it should not be overlooked, are agents of government; they have no inherent authority; all the power they possess

[1] *People* v. *City of Chicago*, 278 Ill. 318, 116 N.E. 158, L.R.A. 1917E 1069. Although this quotation is from a dissenting opinion, it undoubtedly expresses the correct rule of law.

[2] *Horne* v. *School District of Chester*, 75 N.H. 411, 75 Atl. 431.

is derived from the state. They cannot act arbitrarily or capriciously. They are bound by considerations of public policy. When they write into their rules and regulations or into their contracts with teachers provisions which are unreasonable and unnecessary to promote the best interests of the schools, they exceed the scope of their authority and their acts are null and void.

A Guide for the Teaching of Safety Education

The State Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania has published a bulletin entitled *Safety Education in the Public Schools:* A Manual of Organization and Administration. The purpose of the bulletin is to show in a concrete way how safety education can be integrated with the regular school subjects and with the total activity of the school. Although the bulletin was designed primarily for the teachers of Pennsylvania, it should prove stimulating to teachers elsewhere.

Who's Who in This Issue

Douglas E. Scates, director of school research in the public schools of Cincinnati, Ohio. V. L. Beggs, superintendent of schools at Elmhurst, Illinois. Dorothy Van Alstyne, psychologist of the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Illinois. LaBerta Weiss Hattwick, psychologist of the Winnetka Public School Nursery, Winnetka, Illinois. Helen Totten, guidance director of St. Christopher School, Dobbs Ferry, New York. Harry L. Tate, principal of Eli Whitney School, Chicago, Illinois. William S. Gray, professor of education at the University of Chicago. R. L. Lyman, professor of the teaching of English at the University of Chicago. Frederick S. Breed, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. Frank N. Freeman, professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago. R. M. Tryon, professor of the teaching of history at the University of Chicago. Edith P. Parker, assistant professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago.

THE SCHOOL STATISTICIAN IN PUBLICITY WORK

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During the past few years, when educators have found it appropriate to give a new degree of attention to what the public thinks about public education, new conclusions have been reached about the relative importance of various aspects of administration. For one thing, it appears that educators have devoted too large a proportion of their time to what they are doing and too little time to reporting what they are doing. The public, like any other employer, wants to know what is being done by those who are serving it; if it lacks a vital, stimulating contact with the day-by-day work of its schools, it will lose interest and will fail to continue enthusiastic support.

The topic which I wish to develop briefly in this article deals with the part which the statistician can play in this important service of public relations. I am, of course, fully aware that publicity work is not generally to the liking of the technical group, who are inclined to think of public issues as lying outside the field of their concern. While administrators wrestle with problems of securing reasonable school support, meeting with incessant and unenlightened criticism, and coping with protests voiced by organized opposition to public education, the technical worker is likely to draw the circumscribing limits of his attention a little closer together and, focusing his interests more narrowly on his problems, feel glad that he is working in a protected corner of the school system. It is to such workers particularly that I address this discussion, for I believe that too generally in the past they have not seen the large measure of service which they can render the school system by aiding wholeheartedly in the publicity work which must be done.

I should like to call attention to some of the reasons why I believe statisticians and other research workers should be vitally concerned

in the matter of keeping before the public the work and the needs of the public schools.

First, there is a great need for their interest in this work. They can bring to bear on publicity service a perspective and a habit of analysis that other workers do not naturally possess. If educators will but recognize the full significance of their dependence on popular approval, they will see clearly that the maintaining of interest and confidence in the public schools is a task sufficiently large and vital to deserve at least some portion of the thought and energy of *every* worker. At the present time, when the race to secure a larger share of the public's spendable income is becoming more keen among all units in the industrial and commercial world, the public's general institutions are in real need of protection lest the competitive units usurp practically the entire public income and leave far too small a margin for the existence of the general institutions. Definite attempts to move in this direction are already familiar to school workers in cities of any size.

A second important reason for the interest of technicians in publicity work is the protection of the field which is dear to them. Like education in the large, statistics and other technical fields must demonstrate their value or be in danger of being starved. No group of workers can support themselves; they prosper and obtain support for their cherished projects only as they make plain to others the importance of what they are doing. Of course it is true that, as society is organized today, there are bulwarks between the populace and the work of the theoretical specialist; there are various levels of administrators and organizations which successively evaluate and interpret each type of work, reporting to the next more general level, so that the specialist is not immediately dependent on popular opinion. It will be clear, however, that technical work will decline with any general retrenchment in the institution of which it is a part, so that the specialist has a vital interest in seeing that his department contributes its share toward making evident the value of the whole institution. Even in technical fields, therefore, results which the public can comprehend are important for the security both of the immediate department in the institution and of the institution at large. In fact, because of their special ability to render basic service

in this direction, statisticians should feel something more than the average amount of responsibility for aiding in the protection of the institution which gives them a working home.

A third element which should be conducive to favorable consideration of publicity work by statisticians is the large challenge which this field offers. To the average statistician, with a typical frame of mind, the production of material for the man of the street probably seems, at first, an entirely unappealing task. It seems too simple, too easy—in fact, rather "high-schoolish." There may appear to be no opportunity to make use of the elaborate techniques which he has mastered; when the work has been done, there may seem to be nothing tangible to show what he has accomplished. Such attitudes as these indicate, of course, such a preoccupation with the details of his task that he does not perceive clearly the larger aspects of service for which his work is adapted. The statistician must bear in mind that statistical techniques had their origin in practical problems, that they have received most of their development from the necessity of meeting practical needs, and that they will find their continued justification through serviceable application to real problems. In doing a certain amount of practical work, the statistician will find a large opportunity to make contributions in his chosen field that are novel and important.

The technician may feel that there is nothing to be gained and everything to be lost in venturing into an area which has not previously been proved to be scholastically profitable and acceptable to the intellectually élite. It may be pointed out, however, that any field in which problems are unsolved affords a large opportunity for persons who are prepared to attack it. The field of publicity work in education is largely unexplored, both as an area of research and as a field of skilful practice. In this respect education lags far behind the techniques known to industry and commerce, and yet educational workers are hopeful of drawing support from the same source. If the statistician cannot see the immediate possibility of challenge in developing appropriate insights and procedures for school-publicity work, perhaps he can feel some response to the challenge laid down by the field of business in its unceasing efforts to secure ever-larger profits. A person who undertakes publicity work for education may

feel, in no imaginary sense, that he is indirectly matching himself against the skill and techniques of the modern business world as he seeks to preserve for education a just proportion of the income which is available.

A fourth, and final, incentive for entering this field of work is a concept that will probably be the most difficult for the statistician to comprehend, namely, the beneficial effect of such experience on himself and on his work. Those whose sole ambition is to become ever more proficient in the purely theoretical realms of science may perhaps raise a legitimate question about this point—if they may be granted the right to devote an entire life to abstract theory. Such devotion is the province of university professors and can be defended for only a small proportion of them; the statistician who finds himself in school work must have an interest in more immediate service. The benefits to him of engaging in the preparation of materials for publicity work should be substantial. New patterns of emphasis will gradually emerge in his thinking and in his work. He will learn what things other people, including the administrative staff, are interested in, what facts they desire, what comparisons they will make with the facts, what points they will be suspicious of, and what conclusions (proper or improper) they will draw. A knowledge of these things affords important guidance for his work.

Some of the services that the statistician should be able to contribute to publicity work will be reviewed briefly. First of all, he is trained to gather facts. He naturally thinks in quantitative terms and will tend to substitute facts where others would use only unsupported statements. He will see ways of gathering indicative data where others would see no possibility of obtaining them. He knows where and how to secure data from other departments, and he knows the form in which he wants them. The statistician will give thought to basic procedures so that the facts which he secures will stand for certain definite things and may be used for comparative purposes. He will select those quantitative aspects of a problem which have most significance. He will so safeguard his work, from beginning to end, that the results will be accurate. Basic data for publicity purposes must be secured with considerable care, for they will be subjected to exacting scrutiny by persons who might profit by disproving them.

Another element in the contribution of the statistician to publicity work is to be found in his ability to analyze. Here his technical training comes into play most strongly. Not the least important are his capacity for looking at a mass of figures without dismay and his willingness to study them until important relationships appear. The non-statistical person is inclined to avoid the most fruitful sources of statistical information because they yield figures much faster than he knows what to do with them. The statistician, however, is trained to make use of multitudes of figures. He is trained to know what relationships to look for and to employ appropriate methods for bringing these out. Furthermore, he will persist in varying his attacks where another person would stop with a single effort. Fundamental analysis of important relationships is as important in the securing of basic facts for publicity work as it is in any kind of research.

In the matter of presentation, the statistician will probably know at least the formal elements; that is, he should be sufficiently conversant with graphic and tabular methods of presentation so that he will be able to offer important advice in connection with these methods. He should be able to suggest when a graph or a table will make material more telling and more readily grasped, and he should be able to aid in preparing the copy for reproduction. He will see that many technical matters in these processes are properly taken care of.

Attention has not been given to some of the most important questions relating to the statistician's work in publicity fields. He may develop a real interest in the work and he may bring a high degree of technical competence to it, but there are large problems of adjustment which normally have to be faced before the research worker can successfully take his part in publicity work. It may be well to refer to some of these matters of general orientation for this field of service. A research worker in approaching any field of application which is new to him must anticipate that there is a great deal to be learned and that too large a confidence in the training which he already has will cause him to overlook opportunities for improving his work. This danger is particularly characteristic of publicity work, for here the elements are strongly psychological and are so closely woven in with the statistical elements that it is not likely the statistician can produce satisfactory material, even the basic material, if

he lacks responsiveness to the human factors which should guide his thinking all the way through.

The phase of publicity work that is perhaps of most outstanding importance is the analysis of the market. I refer here not so much to the market for service as to the market for carefully purveyed information. What facts regarding education will appeal to people? What do people want to know and read about? What ideas may be suggested which will predispose people to an understanding appreciation of public education? In what form must these facts and ideas be presented in order that they may make the impression which they deserve? Analyses called for by such questions as these should come first, and they should be continued all through the work of gathering and preparing the factual material. The writers of commercial advertising first study the public and then select those factual aspects of their commodity which will interest the public. Workers in education can scarcely afford to ignore the lessons that business people have learned.

One of the early experiences in publicity work which may prove irritating to the research worker is the necessity of accepting considerable guidance from others. The research worker has developed a large degree of independence in his work; he should make an effort to adapt himself as gracefully as possible to the different conditions which are likely to prevail in publicity work, for this work is usually a joint endeavor. In the analysis of the market many minds must co-operate, bringing to bear various experiences and insights growing out of contacts with different portions of society. The research worker should welcome such help; he should realize that an understanding of people is normally his weakest point and that in any case the experience of many persons is desirable. When he has adjusted himself thoroughly to his task, he will come to seek the aid of appropriate committees and will expect to participate for many hours in the deliberations of committees and other groups.

The statistician is typically not well adapted to these processes; he does not take to them naturally; he is impatient of the large amount of talk and indecisiveness. He has great confidence in his techniques, and he feels that, if the people would only stop talking and let him

go to work, all would be well. The many conferences, the protracted discussion, the indecision—all are attempts to analyze the market for school facts. The statistician must come to recognize that this analysis is of far greater importance than is his technical skill. Without these steps the statistician might not only waste his own energy through producing ineffective material, but, more important still, he might waste crucial opportunities for stimulating appropriate public response. His technical insights are important, but they represent only one set of elements in the complex practical situation to be analyzed.

Another adjustment which the research worker may have to make is in his attitude toward the application of facts. In publicity work some selection is essential. The worker does not tell just anything that he happens to know. In preparing material, he is not primarily writing facts; he is rather employing facts to carry out a purpose. Of course, he cannot be so biased in his selection that he will lay himself open to accusations of not telling the truth, but in his selection of what to present he will be guided primarily by his purpose and by the market for his facts. This matter is mentioned here, not so much as a caution (ordinary common sense will take care of the matter in most cases), but as a corrective to certain extreme attitudes that some idealists may hold. A research worker may, for example, feel that publicity material is simply an assembly of half-truths and that he would be required to sacrifice his integrity if he engaged in it. Some further thought may throw a different light on this point of view.

It should be clear that all purposeful work is selective, research as much so as anything else. Any worker disregards hosts of facts in his regular research because they do not relate to his problem. He always tells partial truths, of necessity, because he cannot know *all* the facts about anything. Quantitative science is likely to be less complete in the aspects included in its description than is science which is chiefly non-quantitative. Indeed, statistics might be denoted the science of partial truths. Anything that can be put into figures is only part of the truth, and oftentimes it is not so important as those parts which cannot be expressed in figures. There is a great multiplicity of aspects to truth; only a person who is a theoretical

idealist need concern himself with the thought of telling the *whole* truth, for, as a practical thing, to attempt to do so is a patent absurdity. The important thing is to tell the significant truth—and the significance of any fact is to be judged in the light of its ultimate effect on the service of education to the people.

The matter of selecting facts for a purpose should not, therefore, trouble a person who is accustomed to research work, for he does it all the time. The real question relates not to the selecting but to the purpose, and the worker should consider his purposes carefully. He will not start out to paint any school system as perfect; but neither will he present facts which unnecessarily damage the schools, for he would not then be doing justice to the public. He will seek to present facts which will aid the administration and the teachers in achieving a more serviceable school system and which will aid the public in doing its part to obtain such a system. He will consider facts, not simply from the point of view of truth, but from the point of view of their ultimate effect on developing for the people a school system which is efficient and effective in meeting the people's needs. Over and above the bare mechanics of operating a school system which may be reflected in quantitative facts, he must recognize and tell about the feeling of craftsmanship on the part of the workers, the setting of high standards, and the constant endeavor to realize goals through conscientious daily work. These elements of professional service deserve a place in the facts which are presented to the public; it is more important to include them than it is to include every figure which may be derived.

A third aspect of publicity work which may call for some adjustment on the part of the research worker is the presentation of material on an appropriate level of difficulty. Many a statistician will disdain the popular level of perception and understanding, saying (inwardly at least) that people should know more, that they have no right to be so lazy mentally, that only the intelligent are worth reaching, etc. Such an attitude means that the statistician is as yet unprepared to undertake the important work of making his knowledge render the largest service to people. To do this work well, the technician must not only understand people and their limitations, but he must sympathize with them and desire to help them see what

he, by virtue of his superior advantages, is able to see. He is an interpreter; because his ability and opportunity to penetrate behind the surface and gather facts from a wide area allow him to know the truth, his desire should be to make this truth understandable to others. Statisticians and other research workers are too frequently regarded as constituting a closed corporation. They write, not for the consumer, but for themselves. They try to keep caste rather than to render the greatest possible service.

Perhaps one of the difficulties is that research workers fail to appreciate how most people think—or do not think, as one cares to put it. In either case the appreciation is equally important, for it is the mind of the other person, thinking or not, that must be reached if statistical facts are to be of value. The statistician must therefore get a clear picture of the other person's mind. Publicity material must be written, not for the mind of the alert scholar devoting all his energies to reading what is before him, but rather for the relatively inattentive mind as it passes rapidly from one set of headlines to another. People are not ordinarily willing to pause to consider anything that is complex, long, or otherwise difficult to grasp. The gist of the situation must be culled out from the mass of less important material and must be presented as a simple statement. There is probably a simple way of stating anything, at least in symbolic form, if a person is ingenious enough to find that way; and, when the statistician considers the mental set of the average person reading a newspaper, looking at billboards, scanning his mail, or otherwise being bombarded with ideational stimuli to which someone else is trying to make him pay attention, the research worker will recognize that the reader's mind becomes surfeited with the attention pre-empting devices that are cleverly and profusely injected into nearly all verbal material popularly consumed. In a psychological situation that is already overcrowded with appeals, the statistician must find some way of getting his statements read and understood. This necessity presents a challenge.

The field of publicity work, which has been described as an opportunity for research workers, calls for the study of statistics with something of a new purpose. It calls for students with the willingness to penetrate the mysteries of statistical technique and to mas-

ter the rigors of scientific methods, while retaining their interest in the great masses of humanity and maintaining their sympathy for the kind of thinking done by the common person. The problem for these students is to refine their thought without losing the human point of view. They need statistics to increase their own insights; they need the language of the street and home to make these insights serviceable. One is reminded of a couplet in Kipling's famous poem "If":

> If you can talk with crowds and keep your virtue,
> Or walk with Kings—nor lose the common touch.

In summary, I believe the field of publicity work in education offers all the elements of complexity, of challenge, and of opportunity that the research worker can desire. I realize that participation in this work as an occasional activity or as a permanent field of service is not an established channel for securing recognition as a scholar. The pattern of leadership within the ranks of statistical workers has been set by those who possess and exhibit powers of abstract analysis and generalization and who have devoted most of their energies to theoretical considerations. This situation is characteristic of academic interests. I believe, however, that there are equally worthy opportunities for persons who are willing to be somewhat more immediately practical and to devote most of their energy to a relatively immediate service—without neglecting opportunities to make analyses of a more general character which grow out of their work when they can thus contribute in a larger way to the progress of their field of endeavor.

REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS WITHOUT REPORT CARDS

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Report cards have long furnished the most direct line of communication between the home and the school. Frequently they provide the chief basis for the interpretation of the school and its program. A majority of parents, and too many teachers, conclude that the school's most important contribution to the child's education is recorded on the card. Yet the confusion of parents and the scarcely less obvious uncertainty of teachers have long suggested the inadequacy of school marks as a reliable interpreter of pupil progress or adjustment. The vicious by-products of lesson-learning, the "get-by" attitude, the "passing" complex, and unwholesome competition are readily admitted. Many administrators have been experimenting with new media for reporting pupil progress. In the main, these efforts have taken the direction of reducing the range of the point scale from six or seven symbols to two or three. Frequently "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory" are the only marks to appear on a report card.

A common accompaniment to this abbreviated report of scholastic achievement is the more or less analytical check list of personality traits. Nearly everyone is ready to concede that the school must concern itself with character development and personality adjustments, but few maintain that a check list is the ideal method by which parents may be informed of pupil progress. It is too brief, too stereotyped, and too impersonal. For example, a check mark indicating that a pupil's co-operation is "showing improvement" or "needs attention" provides the parent with an inadequate picture of personality development. Frequently, too, such reports reflect no serious analyses of the growing but complex personalities intrusted to the teacher's charge. Many superintendents admit the inade-

quacy of their reports of pupils' progress but believe that the traditional demand for "marks" and the clerical work involved in preparing a detailed and personal report are insuperable obstacles to the issuance of scientific and comprehensive reports.

Seven years ago the administration in the Elmhurst elementary schools decided to test, in a tentative fashion, the validity of these objections. At that time the practice in the system was to issue to pupils in Grades I–VIII, inclusive, a formal report card with a letter rating of six steps. The supervisory staff agreed that, with the exception of the personal conference, the diagnostic letter sent to the home of a pupil who is not making normal progress or adjustment is the most effective single instrument in securing parental enlightenment and co-operation. Consequently, it was agreed that the diagnostic letter should be issued in Grade I and, if successful there, should be extended gradually to include all grades below the junior high school. This extension was made one grade at a time until all grades were included. In this plan of extension no pupil was deprived of a report card if he had been accustomed to receiving one, and acceptance of the procedure was almost unanimous.

Further recognition was given to the traditional intrenchment of report cards by inviting parents to a tea or other gathering in each school. At this time the supervising principal made a detailed presentation of the new plan. Free discussion followed, and parents invariably decided in favor of the new diagnostic letter. The second objection, the time required for the preparation of the letters, was met in part by reducing the frequency of issuance from a monthly to a quarterly basis; in part by staggering the reports to distribute the load; in part by the installation of typewriters; and in part, particularly during recent years, by securing WPA and National Youth Administration workers for stenographic assistance. Clerical work remains, however, the chief problem in the program, but it is by no means insurmountable. Before the depression forced the classroom maximum from thirty-five to forty pupils, there was no appreciable difficulty in getting out the letters, and since that time inexpensive part-time help and relief workers have minimized the problem.

No form letter or formal guide was issued to the teachers. As a guide for their diagnosis and organization of reports, they were sup-

plied with the following list of recognized traits, with pertinent questions to be answered.

A. Personality development
   1. Is he emotionally stable or unstable?
   2. Can he work or play with other children in a harmonious relationship?
   3. Is he a leader or a follower in group activities?
   4. Is he cheerfully and intelligently obedient?
   5. Is he unselfish and considerate in his relation with other children?
   6. Is he enthusiastic toward school activities or is he apathetic?
   7. Is he truthful and honest?
   8. If he is untruthful, are his falsehoods defensive, imaginative, or maliciously deceitful?

B. Methods of study
   1. Is he capable of sustained attention or is he easily distracted?
   2. Is he independent or is he dependent upon the teacher or classmates for help?
   3. Does he require an unusual amount of reteaching or does he retain well?
   4. Can he follow directions accurately?
   5. Is he fluent in oral expression?
   6. Is his work carefully or carelessly done?
   7. In comparison with his classmates, does he work rapidly or slowly?
   8. Does he possess any special abilities or aptitudes?

C. Academic achievements
   1. Is he acquiring a genuine reading adaptation?
   2. Is his reading free from faulty devices, such as lip-movement, diffusion of eye-movement, pointing, memorization, etc.?
   3. Does he read mechanically or with understanding?
   4. Does he do voluntary reading or only assigned lessons?
   5. Is his number work on a par in rate and accuracy with accepted standards? With the remainder of the class?
   6. Are his spelling and writing in keeping with accepted norms?
   7. Does he show any special ability or disability in art or music?
   8. Does he have any physical defect or lack of motor co-ordination that obstructs learning?

D. Results of tests
   1. Achievement
      Score..... Standard..... Subject age.....

In each school several teachers' meetings were devoted to consideration of the writing of the letters, and many individual conferences between principal and teachers were held. Furthermore, it

is the general practice for the principal to read all diagnostic letters before they are issued. In short, every precaution is taken to prevent the possibility that an ill-considered or carelessly written letter will reach the hands of a parent. Three typical letters are quoted below. Care has been taken to select letters which are neither entirely commendatory nor unduly critical. In each case the diagnosis includes both desirable and undesirable practices or characteristics, such as might be expected of normal children.

Dear Mr. and Mrs. A———:

This is a report of C———'s progress in his school activities during the first nine weeks of school.

C——— exhibits enthusiastic interest in activities in the classroom as well as on the playground. He is eager to participate and is able to work and play harmoniously with other children. He possesses traits of leadership.

C——— has many commendable study habits. However, he overestimates the value of speed, often sacrificing the quality of his work in order to finish rapidly. He is eager to do, and is capable of doing, supplementary work but should be sure his basic activities are prepared to the best of his ability. He is naturally very quick and alert in every respect and dislikes "slowing up" in any way.

He has made a fine reading adaptation, which is very beneficial to him in all his work. He enjoys books and is able to grasp and apply factual material readily. He is acquiring a firm sentence sense and has learned proper sentence punctuation. He expresses his ideas well in written work but has difficulty expressing himself orally in a concise manner. He needs much experience in expressing his ideas before a group.

Because he works so rapidly, it is often necessary for him to rewrite several exercises in science. He comprehends the material readily but is careless about written activities. He possesses a good background in geography and shows a clear understanding of his work.

Many of his errors in arithmetic are the results of carelessness. He completes all supplementary work. He has made steady improvement on the weekly spelling tests. He should master all words each week.

He shows much interest in music. He has fine musical knowledge. His art work is good.

C——— has shown much interest and ability. He has done good work but should not sacrifice quality for speed.

Respectfully yours,

Dear. Mr. and Mrs. B———:

This is the second report of A———'s progress for the current school year.

Social Attitude: A——— continues to display many fine social character-

istics. He radiates a very happy personality, which both the children and his teacher appreciate. It is a pleasure to carry on conversations with him because of his many interesting and wholesome reactions. His position while working has shown a marked improvement, and his speech mannerism that I spoke of in his last letter has practically disappeared. Many times A——— takes on a rather silly attitude. He encourages other children to have this same type of attitude, which becomes very disturbing. This is carried over to the playground. I feel that A——— can and should be one of the leaders of the class who encourage good fun and serious work.

Study Habits: Although his study habits are improving, as yet he is not making complete and economical use of his study periods. He is inclined to dream when working independently. Many times during discussion periods he finds it too much work to use his reference materials as the others do, but at other times he is most interested. I hope he will soon maintain this interest during most of the discussions.

Academic Attainments: During the last ten weeks' period his spelling record has been very irregular. He has had as high as fourteen errors and as low as one. I am sure he would have fewer errors if he made thorough use of his time. He is doing high average work in arithmetic and has a thorough knowledge of the long-division processes. In reading A——— still ranks somewhat lower in speed than comprehension. He is becoming more interested in library books. Reading many interesting easy books should increase his speed. He is doing average work in music and somewhat above average in art. In the social-science subjects his work is not always consistent although he is showing improvement. In these subjects he does much independent work, and his span of attention is inclined to be short. He gives attention to the discussions and answers many of the exercises from these discussions instead of the references. With decided effort he should do superior work in these subjects.

If you have any questions in regard to this letter, kindly call Miss D——— for an appointment.

Very truly yours,

Dear Mr. and Mrs. C———:

In accordance with the school's plan of informing parents of the progress of their children, I am writing to you in regard to B———.

B——— is trying very hard to adjust himself to the third grade. He has a fine attitude toward his work and wants to do well. However, he is handicapped by his very slow and timid approach to his work. Due to this, it is very hard for him to complete his work, and often he fails to get his assignments done at all.

B——— is a steady, slow worker and does not give up easily. He should be encouraged to express himself more freely as he has some very good ideas.

B——— is a slow, deliberate reader. Due to his lack of self-confidence and slowness, he frequently fails to complete his comprehensive tests. I hope B——— reads simple library stories at home to bring up his rate. Then by

gaining a thorough understanding and in that way instilling self-confidence, he will be able to complete his work.

The same condition is true in his arithmetic. He progresses very slowly but accurately. When he once has a combination or process mastered, it is his for good.

He is very poor in his spelling work. I feel B——— is nervous about his words and has a complex of fear of making a mistake. Perhaps with extra help at home in oral reading and drill on his spelling words, we can help B——— to gain more self-assurance and promote better independent work.

B——— is very careful and neat about his penmanship.

He is much interested in his Indian work.

If you have any suggestions to offer concerning B———'s habits or attitudes which might be of value toward his school work, I shall be glad to confer with you.

Sincerely yours,

After four years of trial, at the end of which the first four grades were included in the practice, the administration decided to test the reception accorded these letters by the community. A questionnaire was prepared and submitted to the parents in what was perhaps the most conservative district of the city. The two key questions dealt with the preference for the diagnostic letters as compared with the report card and with the comparative efficacy of the letters in interpreting the program and objectives of the school to the parents. The responses were tabulated by grades. The preference for the diagnostic letter was indicated as follows: Grade I, 91 per cent; Grade II, 87 per cent; Grade III, 86 per cent; Grade IV, 64 per cent. On the interpretation of the school, the following percentages testified to the preference for the diagnostic letter: Grade I, 91 per cent; Grade II, 92 per cent; Grade III, 88 per cent; Grade IV, 77 per cent.

During the school year 1935–36, after the plan had been in operation for six years and included all the elementary grades, a more comprehensive survey was undertaken. A detailed questionnaire was submitted to all parents, and responses were received from 883 families. Space permits only a summary of the replies to the key questions, which is given in Table I. Obviously, the survey favors the diagnostic letter on every phase of the inquiry. Only when the combination of report card and letter is proposed, is there any significant variation in the response. Even then, the substantial ma-

jority of the families (60.9 per cent) express themselves as being satisfied with the present letter.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS OF 883 FAMILIES TO KEY POINTS ON QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING USE OF DIAGNOSTIC LETTERS

Question and Preference	Percentage of Families with Children in Grade						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	All Grades
Do you prefer the diagnostic letter now in use or the report card with a letter or percentage rating?							
Diagnostic letter	93.6	88.7	79.2	76.5	85.9	83.0	85.9
Report card	6.4	11.3	20.8	23.5	14.1	17.0	14.1
Do you get a better understanding of the school's aims and purposes from the diagnostic letter or from the report card?							
Diagnostic letter	95.8	95.3	87.2	88.8	91.7	91.8	92.1
Report card	4.2	4.7	12.8	11.2	8.3	8.2	7.9
Does the diagnostic letter or the report card indicate the better pupil-teacher relationship?							
Diagnostic letter	96.5	97.9	89.2	94.6	96.4	90.4	94.2
Report card	3.5	2.1	10.8	5.4	3.6	9.6	5.8
The diagnostic letter attempts to report progress in the school subjects and growth and adjustment in personality. Would you prefer to have a report-card rating on the school subjects studied, together with a letter on the personality rating, or the composite letter now being used?							
Diagnostic letter	66.9	67.7	65.5	56.9	59.4	54.0	60.9
Report card and letter	33.1	32.3	34.5	43.1	40.6	46.0	39.1
Prefer to have the letter issued:							
Four times a year	71.0	62.8	63.3	66.5	61.2	65.0	64.8
Twice a year	2.0	0.7	2.5	0.7	3.0	0.8	1.3
Three times a year	0.0	1.9	0.0	1.5	2.2	1.7	1.7
Once a month	27.0	34.6	34.2	31.3	33.6	32.5	32.2

Of even greater interest, perhaps, are the many voluntary letters and comments which accompanied the questionnaire. Apparently many patrons feared that the survey meant a possible discontinuance of the diagnostic letter and hastened to implore the school

authorities to retain the letter in its present form. Following are a few of the typical comments received.

I sincerely hope you will not go back to the report-card system. This method gives a much better understanding of the child and his characteristics.

I think the teachers should be complimented upon the excellent analyses and sincerely hope the letters will be continued.

By all means continue the diagnostic letter. It is a wonderful way of letting parents know how their children are progressing in school subjects, also as to personality rating when away from home and in a group.

The diagnostic letter is a vast improvement over the old-fashioned report card, and I believe it will replace the report card in the near future. The report-card system is obsolete right now.

There seems little doubt now that the diagnostic letter has definitely replaced the symbolism of the report card and check list in this community. The hundreds of letters and inquiries received from teachers and school administrators since the initial report[1] of the experiment in 1934 reveal an acute discontent with the traditional report card and a lively interest in the more informal and comprehensive letters.

No claim of perfection is made, but six years of experience and observation lend substantiation to the premises upon which the experiment was founded: (1) The diagnostic letter gives a much clearer picture of academic progress and personality growth than can any abbreviated report card or check list. (2) Introduction of such a letter is entirely feasible if parents are taken into the complete confidence of the school. (3) Parents and children alike prefer this comprehensive report. (4) The descriptive letter gives a much clearer interpretation of the school's program and objectives than does the report card. (5) The letter fosters a much more co-operative relation between home and school. (6) Much of the "passing" complex and undesirable competition can be eliminated by the use of the letter. (7) Teachers can be trained in service to give the results of their analyses in clear and intelligible letters. (8) Most of the mechanical difficulties in issuing letters can be overcome by practice and the occasional employment of inexpensive stenographic help.

[1] "New Developments in Pupil Report Cards." Educational Research Service, Circular No. 4, 1934. Washington: Department of Superintendence and Research Division of the National Education Association, 1934.

A NEW SCALE FOR RATING SCHOOL BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES[1]

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Rating scales have demonstrated their usefulness in the elementary-school field. Although theoretically a large battery of tests and observation techniques is necessary for the diagnosis of personality, studies have shown that in practice almost as satisfactory results can be obtained with rating scales, provided the scales are specific and the judges are thoroughly acquainted with the child. The teacher who knows the interpretive background of the whole context of a child's environment and sees him in all his relationships from day to day is, after all, one of the best mediums for obtaining evidence concerning the child's personality.

There have been comparatively few scales for rating the many facets of the child's personality. The Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedule (published by the World Book Company) and the Maller Character and Personality Rating Scale (published by Teachers College, Columbia University) have been the chief devices in this field. The former scale consists of thirty-five items for rating on a five-point scale the mental, physical, social, and emotional aspects of a child's life in school. Each of the five points is described, and a "problem-tendency" score is given for each point. An illustration of the items follows.

29. How does he react to frustrations or to unpleasant situations?

Very submissive Long-suffering	Tolerant Rarely blows up	Generally self-controlled	Impatient	Easily Irritated Hot-headed Explosive
(3)	(2)	(1)	(4)	(5)

[1] This study was made under a grant from the Behavior Research Fund, Chicago, Illinois.

On the Maller scale fifty aspects of character and personality are to be rated. Three points are described briefly—the two extremes and the average—as in the following example.

A. Leadership
1. Never leads in any social activity.
2. Occasionally acts as leader.
3. Is a born leader; has high degree of initiative.

In a follow-up study of Winnetka nursery-school children, a need was felt for a scale which would be more specific than these, a scale with more than five points for most items so that descriptions could be found which would be suitable for all types of children, and especially a scale which would be constructed in terms of actual classroom situations so that the teacher could more accurately make judgments. A seminar group of Winnetka teachers met under the guidance of the writers for a period of two years and formulated a rating scale to fill these requirements. The teachers represented all grades from the nursery school through the sixth grade. Incidents of behavior taken from classroom observation of children were used as the foundation of the scale.

METHODS USED IN CONSTRUCTION OF THE RATING SCALE

1. Teachers were asked to select the two "best-organized" and the two "most poorly organized" children in their classes. "Best-organized" was interpreted to mean "those children with whom the teacher was making no particular effort at adjustment because their development was proceeding smoothly," and "poorly adjusted" was to refer to "those children on whom the teacher was expending time and effort to bring about a balance in the children's personalities, both socially and emotionally."

2. The teachers were asked to report incidents of classroom behavior on which they had based their judgments and to keep a record of further incidents over a four-week period.

3. The incidents were then sorted into specific classroom situations, such as, "When visitors are present," "When a child's activity is interfered with by another child," "When opportunity for free activity is given." As incidents were sorted, it became apparent that

the child's response to each of these situations could be classified in a tentative order of desirability. It would have been valuable to have exactly the same specific incident indicated in each response level, but this arrangement was not possible because of the age range covered. For example, in the nursery school a child's activity may be interfered with by another child who is continually bumping into him on a bicycle, but at the fifth-grade level the interference may consist chiefly in the disturbing questions asked by another child. Then, too, a large number of these specific items would be necessary to make any kind of judgment on the child's ability to deal with interference. Therefore, some sort of generalization had to be made to cover the different sorts of incidents in the different grades as well as those within the same grade. For convenience the situations were tentatively classified under the following headings: (1) "Co-operation with Adults, Response to Adults," (2) "Emotional Security," (3) "Group-Mindedness–Sociability–Response to Other Children," (4) "Responsibility–Dependability–Self-Reliance–Self-Respect," and (5) "Initiative."

4. Each teacher was asked to divide her class into six groups: Group I, the children whom she considered the best organized; Group II, those who were next best organized; and so on. The groups need not be composed of equal numbers of children. The teacher was asked to evaluate the response levels thus far outlined under each situation heading in terms of the children in each of the six groups. The following directions were given:

> Take each situation in order and think of the probable or usual response to that situation by the children listed in Group I. If the response can be characterized by a level already noted, place a "1" in front of the level. If it is not present, formulate the level which does characterize this group and insert in the outline where you judge it belongs. Do the same for the other five groups.

Eliminations and criticisms of headings were also requested.

5. A tentative form of the scale containing thirty situations was evolved. This scale was mimeographed and presented in booklet form to the teachers of the seminar group with the request that they rate each of the children in their classes in a separate booklet. The directions were that, if for a given child no response level was found,

a statement was to be inserted in its adjudged proper place. In this way about 30 children were rated at each grade level from nursery school through the sixth grade, a total of about 250 children.

6. The tentative forms were revised on the basis of the evidence gathered from the rating of the 250 children. In the revision the following points were kept in mind: (*a*) insertion of new response levels which had been indicated by the teachers, (*b*) formation of new response levels where the frequencies indicated the possible need for other responses, (*c*) elimination of ambiguous wording or wording which might "color" the whole response level, and (*d*) the judgment by the teachers in the group as to the order of desirability of the response levels.

7. The revised scale of thirty-three situations was then mimeographed in booklet form. In this new form the general headings, such as "Responsibility," "Co-operation," etc., were omitted, and the response levels were arranged in random order. This arrangement was used in order that there might be no bias in the teachers' judgments resulting either from the influence of a general heading or from the influence that a "good" or "bad" sequence might have in judging individual children. The random order was also thought to make for a finer scrutiny of each response as individual children were judged.

8. More than 1,200 children were rated by means of the revised scale. Approximately 1,100 were in the Winnetka public schools from nursery school through the sixth grade, 50 were in the emergency nursery schools in Chicago, and 75 in two rural schools in Kansas. The ratings were made in March, 1934.

RESULTS

Frequencies for each response level were calculated for all 1,100 Winnetka children, and decile scores were devised. Each child's ratings were scored, and grade medians were calculated. On the whole, the medians tended to show little change from grade to grade. This fact may indicate that the raters were thinking in terms of their own respective grades and that, although actual growth may have occurred, each teacher has his own level of expectancy for children of his grade.

The final form of the scale consists of thirteen situations which were selected from the original thirty-three on the basis of statistical analysis.[1] Multiple-factor correlations were used to determine which items could be best grouped together under general headings. There finally emerged five general headings: "Co-operation," "Social Consciousness," "Emotional Security," "Leadership," and "Responsibility." A rating of these general headings represents the average decile score of responses in three different situations. Each of these situations has five to ten response levels, the majority having six or seven. An example of a situation with its response levels arranged in order of desirability follows.

IX. When a child has opportunity to take responsibility for a group task—
Directs task and carries it to completion for group benefit (10).
Takes responsibility for a task without being reminded (9).
Takes task but does not complete it (7).
Takes responsibility for task only when especially asked by teacher (6).
Takes responsibility for a task only when special interest is involved (4).
Rarely wants to take charge of task (3).
Cannot take responsibility for a group task (2).

The figures in parentheses are decile scores based on the ratings of 1,100 children of the Winnetka public schools.

The situations are averaged to obtain the rating for each heading: "Co-operation," "Social Consciousness," etc. An example of one situation from each group is given below. Each situation is followed by its highest- and lowest-scoring response levels. The intervening response levels have been omitted for the sake of brevity.

Co-operation

II. When there is a group project to be carried on—
Enjoys co-operating with others to improve the group work (10).
Hinders group activity (0).

Social Consciousness

IV. When a child has a social task to be completed—
Carries task to completion even by sacrifice of other interests (10).
Tries to escape task by contrary behavior or by shifting jobs (1).

[1] An article on the statistical analysis of the scale will appear in a forthcoming number of the *Journal of Educational Psychology*.

Emotional Security

VII. When faced with failure—
Sees cause of failure and corrects it (10).
Becomes irritable or angry, or cries (0).

Leadership

X. When in a social situation which allows for initiative—
Can organize and lead large group (10).
Shows no social initiative (1).

Responsibility

XI. When he has finished studying a subject—
Has time so planned that he knows what work to do next (10).
Wanders around room annoying other children, or sits in seat bothering others (1).

VALUE AND USE OF THE WINNETKA SCALE FOR RATING BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES[1]

1. A rating scale which can be used from nursery school through the sixth grade is valuable for use in early study and diagnosis of personality. It is especially important in a child's early years when habit patterns are in the process of formation.

2. The scale is expressed in the language of the environment in which it is used and in terms of situations in which teachers are interested and which they most frequently note.

3. The ratings help to make the teacher's judgment analytical.

4. The scale is specific in its description of situations and response levels.

5. The best use of the scale will come from judgments made after extended observation (preferably two months or more).

6. The scale should be used for analysis of individual differences within a grade rather than for evaluation of differences between grades.

7. For surveying purposes the total score or the average of all scores may be used.

8. A profile graph, such as that shown in Figure 1, furnishes a clear picture of a pupil's assets and liabilities with respect to the five

[1] Published by the Winnetka Educational Press, Horace Mann School, Winnetka, Illinois.

traits of "Co-operation," "Social Consciousness," "Emotional Security," "Leadership," and "Responsibility."

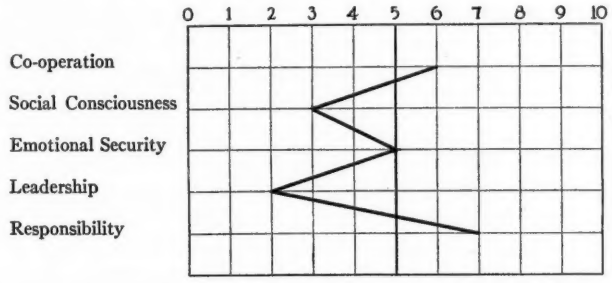

FIG. 1.—Profile graph of a pupil rated on the Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes.

9. The scale is valuable in obtaining cumulative records of a child's behavior in comparison with that of his group from nursery school through the sixth grade.

AN EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT METHOD

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This article reports the results of an investigation carried out in the spring of 1935 in the Whitney School in Chicago for the purpose of evaluating the project method of teaching. The subjects for the experiment were 237 pupils in Grades II A, IV A, and VIII A. At each of these grade levels two groups were formed which were equated in all factors that strongly influence learning. In each grade one group of pupils, hereafter known as the experimental group, was taught by the project method; the other group, the control group, was taught by any method that the teacher might choose other than the project method. In each grade the same teacher taught both groups of pupils. An arrangement was made whereby the experimental group in each grade met first. Notes on the activities and the discussions of the experimental groups became the basis of the curriculum of the control groups on the following day. Tests were devised to compare the effectiveness of the two methods of teaching.

DEFINITION OF THE PROJECT METHOD

In order that the factor of teacher participation might not be a variable, a strict definition of the project method was adopted and followed to the letter throughout the investigation. The following directions were given to teachers as definitive of the method to be employed.

1. The activity, both physical and mental, shall be *that of the pupils.*
2. The planning and engineering of the project shall be *pupil directed.*
3. The teacher's function as a "conventional" teacher shall be *dormant* until *absolute necessity* compels her to *help the class* make a decision or solve some problem.
4. The teacher is to be a *guide* and a *counselor.*
5. She is to *help motivate* the selection of the project.
6. She is to *guide* the unfolding and development of the project by means of objections, questions, and suggestions. This guidance is to be exercised to

prevent the class from acquiring erroneous knowledge and to rescue them from any impasse that might occur.

7. She is to *aid* in supplying materials *only* when necessary.

8. She is to answer questions when the *class cannot*, after due diligence and industry in research, do so.

9. She is to take charge of the class discussion only when necessary to bring some *problem* of discipline, workmanship, or understanding *before the class* for *their* solution. Otherwise, she is to have no direct hand in the control or direction of the class.

10. There is to be no drill.

11. There is to be no recitation of things learned.

12. There is to be no work in the usual sense.

13. There is to be no review.

14. The words above which are italicized emphasize the point that the project is to be a production of the members of the class and is to be an embodiment of their interests and efforts.

PROCEDURES FOLLOWED

In the experimental groups no predetermined objectives or outcomes were set up toward which the classes were to move or which they were to attempt to master. The outcomes and the objectives were to be those that the pupils themselves determined. Teacher participation was to be kept to the absolute minimum that would be consistent with a wholesome atmosphere of pupil activity wherein freedom was not to be considered as synonymous with unbridled license. The teacher was to use every effort to keep conditions favorable for the pupils to determine for themselves the nature of the project after it had been motivated by her. She was also to determine the succession of steps in the continuous planning of the project; the consummation of those plans; and the activities either antecedent to, concomitant with, or subsequent to, the steps. Objectives, outcomes, and curriculum are thus seen to have been inseparably interwoven. The instant the children determined on an objective, they thereby in large measure fashioned a portion of their curriculum and indirectly predetermined the nature of the outcomes. A nature-study project called "Rabbits" was used in Grade II A; an arithmetic project, "Purchasing Supplies and Equipment for Our Summer Camp," in Grade IV A; and a geography project, "The Weather," in Grade VIII A.

In the control groups the subject matter covered was confined to

the same ground over which the experimental groups had advanced. The teacher was privileged to use every teaching device at her command except the project. She could drill, review, or give individual attention, according to the needs of groups or individuals as they arose. She could give any number of questions or problems or have unlimited class discussions provided she kept the control curriculum fitted to the general ground of the experimental curriculum.

COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Table I gives a summary of the data on the chronological age, the mental age, the intelligence, and the achievement of the pupils included in the experiment. The data on chronological age, intelligence, and mental age came from the school records. For the past several years all children who have entered the Whitney School have been given the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability. In cases where doubt has arisen concerning the accuracy of the results, the pupils have been retested on another form. The data concerning achievement represent the results that were obtained by giving Initial Comprehensive Test 1 and Initial Comprehensive Test 2 and by combining the results into one score. These tests were used to equate the experimental and the control groups and to evaluate the effectiveness of the project method. They will be described in more detail in a later section of this article.

The data in Table I show that there was no difference which could be considered significant in the chronological age, the mental age, or the intelligence of the two groups in Grade II A. So far as potential achievement in the coming experiment was concerned, neither class was beginning with a handicap. This equality of ability is amply confirmed by the medians of the initial tests considered separately and in combination. In Initial Test C–1 the experimental group made a median of 65.0 and the control group a median of 63.2, the difference being only 1.8 points. In Initial Test C–2 the experimental class secured a median of 52 and the control class a median of 53, the difference being exactly 1 point. When the results of the two tests were combined, the median of the experimental group was 59.5 and that of the control was 58.3. When it is remembered that the two initial tests consisted of 200 items, the difference of 1.2 points is too small to be considered of any practical importance.

The figures for each of the other grades show that the experimental and the control groups were almost exactly equal in chronological age, mental age, and intelligence. The only large differences in achievement medians are those which occur in Grade IV A.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Grade II A	Grade IV A	Grade VIII A
Number of pupils:			
Experimental group	36	41	41
Control group	37	40	42
Median chronological age (in years and months):			
Experimental group	7–9	9–8	13–9
Control group	7–10	9–8	13–10
Median mental age (in years and months):			
Experimental group	8–3	9–9	14–0
Control group	8–4	10–1	14–1
Median intelligence quotient:			
Experimental group	108.0	100.0	101.0
Control group	107.0	103.5	102.0
Median score on Initial Test C-1:			
Experimental group	65.0	73.0	67.3
Control group	63.2	64.5	65.5
Difference	1.8±2.7	8.5±2.5	1.8±1.3
Median score on Initial Test C-2:			
Experimental group	52.0	57.2	57.1
Control group	53.0	52.0	56.7
Difference	− 1.0±4.1	5.2±3.1	0.4±1.5
Median score on both initial tests:			
Experimental group	59.5	65.5	61.4
Control group	58.3	54.3	60.8
Difference	1.2±6.7	11.2±2.5	0.6±2.5

DESCRIPTION OF TESTS USED

Before the initial tests could be constructed, the teachers had to speculate on the possible fields of knowledge into which the children might be led when guided by their own interests and mental associations. The teachers had misgivings about their ability to predict a course of study, but, on the whole, the fit between these speculative areas of learning and the actual ground covered by the experimental groups was very close.

Two types of tests were used. The first, called "comprehensive

tests," included three tests designated as Test C–1, Test C–2, and Test C–3. Test C–1 consisted of one hundred true-false statements and was administered at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. Test C–2 was composed of one hundred multiple-choice questions and was also given at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. Test C–3 consisted of one hundred two-answer questions and was given only at the end of the experiment. The purpose of Tests C–1 and C–2 was to measure the progress of the classes. Test C–1 was constructed with the view of measuring the general knowledge of the pupils in the speculative fields of learning. The questions in Test C–2 were formulated with the hope that they would reveal abilities in the following fields: (1) interpreting experiences, (2) making inferences and judgments, (3) making comparisons, (4) detecting differences, (5) initiative, (6) interest, (7) leadership, (8) appreciation, (9) social consciousness, (10) creativeness, and (11) responsibility. Test C–3 was designed to measure the ability of the pupils to recall the concrete objects and processes of the projects and to use them in abstract thinking. Owing to the paucity of such objects that materialized, it became necessary to base most of these questions on the general areas of learning, but with the original objectives in mind.

Weekly tests of the type ordinarily used by teachers, sometimes called the "essay type," were constructed, administered, and scored by the teacher who was in charge of the experiment at each grade level. The questions, ten in number, were framed in such a manner that the pupil had to explain or to discuss an important point in each question. All the weekly tests were edited and approved by the writer.

RELATIVE GAINS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Careful attendance records were kept by all the teachers, and the performance of any child who was not enrolled for the entire duration of the experiment was not allowed to enter into the compilation of data. The gains or losses of the two groups are shown in Table II.

Results on Test C–1.—On Test C–1 in all the grades the control pupils made greater gains than the experimental pupils. In Grade II A the control group was superior to the experimental group by

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF MEDIAN TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON TESTS C-1, C-2, C-3 AND ON TOPICAL TESTS GIVEN BY TEACHERS

Test	Grade II A			Grade IV A			Grade VIII A		
	Experimental Group	Control Group	Difference	Experimental Group	Control Group	Difference	Experimental Group	Control Group	Difference
Initial Test C-1	65.0	63.2	1.8± 2.7	73.0	64.5	8.5±2.5	67.3	65.5	1.8±1.3
Final Test C-1	74.5	89.5	−15.0± 3.5	70.8	68.5	2.3±2.2	66.4	70.1	−3.7±1.2
Gain	9.5±2.6	26.3±3.5	−16.8± 4.4	− 2.2±2.1	4.0±2.5	− 6.2±3.3	− 0.9±1.5	4.6±1.0	−5.5±1.8
Initial Test C-2	52.0	53.0	− 1.0± 4.1	57.2	52.0	5.2±3.1	57.1	56.7	0.4±1.5
Final Test C-2	68.0	84.5	−16.5± 5.0	60.8	57.5	3.3±3.3	61.2	69.3	−8.1±1.9
Gain	16.0±4.6	31.5±4.5	−15.5± 6.5	3.6±3.0	5.5±3.3	− 1.9±4.5	4.1±1.7	12.6±1.8	−8.5±2.4
Initial Tests C-1 and C-2	59.5	58.3	1.2± 6.7	65.5	54.3	11.2±2.5	61.4	60.8	0.6±2.5
Final Tests C-1 and C-2	71.3	86.5	−15.2± 8.2	63.9	62.8	1.1±2.6	63.3	68.5	−5.2±2.8
Gain	11.8±7.0	28.2±7.9	−16.4±10.6	− 1.6±2.4	8.5±2.7	−10.1±3.6	1.9±2.8	7.7±2.5	−5.8±3.8
Test C-3	86.3	93.5	− 7.2± 3.7	61.8	64.0	− 2.2±1.9	71.2	74.5	−3.3±1.6
Topical tests	38.7	59.0	−20.3± 4.7	48.3	52.3	− 4.0±3.8	59.6	69.0	−9.4±4.2

16.8 points. This difference was the greatest for any grade. In Grade IV A there was a difference of 6.2 points in favor of the control pupils.

A remarkable fact is that the project group in Grade IV A actually sustained a loss in median score. The explanation of the teachers for the lack of gain (and the writer agrees with the teachers) is that pupils need repetition of, and drill on, difficult subject matter if their retention of the material is to be assured. The arithmetic concepts which appeared suddenly in the project and which had to be mastered for immediate use either had not been thoroughly acquired in previous school experiences (long division, for example) or were entirely new (such as fractions and scaling). Even though problems involving scaling did not occur in this particular test, a great amount of class time, which under normal conditions would have been devoted to usual fourth-grade topics, was consumed by the children in discovering and perfecting a scale. In the project in Grade VIII A a great deal of difficult subject matter was involved in the construction of weather instruments. Similar conclusions apply here as have been mentioned in connection with the loss in Grade IV A. In both groups the committees who worked on difficult matters did not take enough time to present their findings to the classes. Neither were the presentations given clearly enough and thoroughly enough to make an impression on the minds of the pupils commensurate with what a teacher-led recitation would have accomplished.

Since the loss in Grade IV A is not statistically significant, it may not be a real one. The results of a repetition of the same test or results obtained by the administering of a different form might not show any loss. If, however, the loss is real, it is probably due to forgetting or to confusion and interference.

The superiority of the gain of the control group in Grade VIII A is statistically significant. The experimental group suffered a loss of 0.9 of a point. The difference in the gains in favor of the control group is 5.5, the smallest difference in any of the grades. It will be noted that, since the classes of the lowest grade established the greatest difference and the classes of the highest grade established the lowest difference, an inverse relation is indicated between grade level and the effectiveness of the project method.

Results on Test C–2.—On Test C–2 none of the groups sustained a loss. The evidence is favorable to the control groups although not nearly so overwhelming as on Test C–1. The superiority of the gain of the control group in Grade II A was again greater than that of the other two grades. The order of the differences for Grade IV A and Grade VIII A was the reverse of that on Test C–1.

On the medians derived by combining the results of the two initial tests, all the gains were again in favor of the control groups. The experimental group in Grade IV A again sustained a loss. These data show that once more the control group of the lowest grade made the greatest superiority in gain over the corresponding experimental group and that the control group of the highest grade made the smallest superiority in gain.

Results on Test C–3.—Test C–3 was not given at the beginning of the experiment because its purpose was to get at the effect on the minds of the pupils of the concreteness of project work, that is, to determine whether the perception of the materials and the objects of the projects and the interrelations existing among their elements, together with the actual handling and manipulation involved in the constructive activities, would develop in the pupils in the experimental groups a greater power to do abstract thinking than that evinced by the pupils in the control groups. As previously stated, the ultimate materialization of the substance of the projects prevented the construction of a test consisting entirely of the kind of items originally planned. Enough were included, however, to give a strong characterization of the element intended. Test C–3 was not a progress test.

The superiority of the control groups over the experimental groups is evident in this test also. In Grade VIII A the median of the control pupils is 4.6 per cent higher than the median of the experimental pupils; in Grade II A the median of the control class is 8.3 per cent greater than the median of the experimental class; and in Grade IV A the control-group median gives it a superiority of 3.6 per cent over the experimental-group median. If the test measures what it purports to measure, there is not much difference in the outcomes for the two groups, but there is an indication that the control-group pupils, who did no construction work, had slightly greater

ability in answering questions related to material properties of the projects than did the project pupils. This fact is all the more striking because the projects were always covered over with cloth during the entire time the control groups occupied the rooms.

Perhaps the visual images acquired by the control pupils through their classroom work when combined with what they had previous to the experiment gave them a better basis upon which to build abstractions than that possessed by the experimental pupils. It may also be possible that too great an intimacy with concreteness inhibits the recall of specific minutiae, abstract thinking being thus retarded. However, the writer is inclined to favor the conclusion that project teaching may be ineffective in causing the retention of visual impressions upon which abstractions may be based. This result may be due to the lack of repetition and drill and to the absence of an intent to retain impressions and ideas at the time they enter the mind.

Results on the topical tests.—Topical tests were given at the end of each week of the experiment, except the last, on the topics that the classes had covered during the week. In Grade II A no test was given in the second week owing to the slowness in the development of the curriculum by the experimental group. The purposes of these tests were to measure the attainments of the pupils week by week and to measure attainment of a different type from that measured by the objective tests. It was thought that providing the pupils freedom in expressing themselves and opportunity to give some diagram answers might reveal outcomes more nearly connected with project teaching. Great care was exercised to limit the questions for any one week to the range of the curriculum material that had been covered in that week. These tests were scored by the teachers who handled the classes at the respective grade levels. In an attempt to make the scoring as objective as possible, credit was given a pupil for points representing parts of an answer that were correct. The number of points to a question varied with the nature of the questions.

The data in Table II on the topical tests show that in every instance the control classes were superior in attainment to the experimental classes, the greatest difference occurring in Grade II A and the smallest in Grade IV A.

In Grade II A the difference of 20.3 in favor of the control class is 52 per cent of the experimental-class median; in Grade IV A the difference of 4.0 in favor of the control group is 8.3 per cent of the experimental-group median; and in Grade VIII A the difference in favor of the control pupils is 15.8 per cent of the experimental-group median. Since the differences for Grades IV A and VIII A are not highly significant, the implication may be that for time periods as short as one week the project method is fairly effective in bringing about an acquisition of learning but that, because of lack of drill, review, and other methods used in conventional teaching, the learning is not retained. The lack of achievement of the experimental groups has been brought out in the data on the progress made over the five weeks of the experiment. It may well be that the point involved is not lack of achievement so much as lack of retention of achievement.

CONCLUSIONS

In this experiment ample evidence was obtained to justify several important conclusions. These are not considered by the investigator to have universal application but are thought of only in light of the empirical findings. The conclusions are: (1) The conventional method of teaching, as judged by the results of Test C–1, is superior to the project method insofar as academic outcomes are concerned. (2) Test C–2, which was designed in the hope that it would reveal traits of project teaching which are supposed to be greater in number and richer in quality than the derivatives of conventional teaching, show that the project children were inferior to the non-project children. (3) The results of Test C–3, which was expected to determine the ability of pupils to recall the concrete objects and processes of the projects and to use these in abstract thinking, show that the non-project children were superior to the project children. (4) The results of the topical tests given each week tend to show that project teaching is fairly effective in producing achievement but ineffective in causing retention of achievement.

OTHER CONCLUSIONS

Although lack of space forbids the publishing of all data, the reader may be interested in other conclusions which seem to be warranted by the evidence growing out of this investigation.

1. An analysis of the test results shows that boys and girls perform equally well under project teaching.

2. Children in Grade II A read about the same amount of literature whether taught by the conventional or by the project method. In Grade VIII A the children under the project method read more.

3. Project children engage in many more kinds of activities than non-project children.

4. An analysis of the teachers' answers to a questionnaire shows that (*a*) projects arouse more interest than conventional methods; (*b*) this interest is sustained, with a little help from the teacher; (*c*) the quantity and the quality of reading are increased; (*d*) the pupils are stimulated to oral expression; (*e*) in the project method there is a stronger correlation with the pupil's personal experiences; and (*f*) there is a lesser correlation of subject matter under the "pure project method."

5. Accurate records kept throughout this experiment show that many so-called "intangibles" or "immeasurable outcomes" of project teaching do exist. The specific outcomes that appeared in this experiment were self-government, group consciousness, and social planning.

6. Children in project work do not naturally run their project into many other subjects allied to the subject with which the project is primarily concerned.

7. Pupils do not naturally prolong a project beyond its reasonable life-period. They terminate the project after attaining the original objectives.

8. The board of education furnished only 31.4 per cent of the items of construction material used in the projects.

9. Projects can be built that are of no expense whatever to either pupils or teachers.

10. Children use procedures in project work that closely parallel the conduct of adults in the practical affairs of life.

11. Children show a high degree of stability in planning.

12. Creditable project work can be accomplished on the same time schedule that is used in conventional teaching.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. The Subject Fields

This list of references is the second in a series of three lists relating to instruction at the elementary-school level. The preceding list, appearing in the September number of the *Elementary School Journal*, contains items on the curriculum, methods of teaching and study, and supervision. The present list and the next list in the series include references on these same major aspects of instruction, but the items are grouped by subject fields.

READING[1]

William S. Gray

402. Baruch, Dorothy W. "Trends in Children's Literature Today," *Elementary English Review*, XII (October, 1935), 187–91.

Describes a series of "outstanding trends" in children's literature which were identified in a somewhat broad survey of the field.

403. *Better Reading Instruction.* Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XIII, No. 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1935. Pp. 273–325.

Reviews "the practices of a group of unusually successful teachers [of reading]" and supplements these with important research findings and recommendations from the general literature on reading instruction.

404. Betts, Emmett Albert. *The Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties.* Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1936. Pp. xiv+402.

Identifies basic issues relating to the prevention and the correction of reading difficulties, discusses these "in the light of available evidence," and provides numerous practical suggestions for diagnosing and correcting reading deficiencies.

405. Betts, Emmett Albert. "Reading Disability Correlates," *Education*, LVI (September, 1935), 18–24.

Presents a helpful outline of "correlates" of reading disability and points out that no one correlate can account for all types and degrees of difficulties and,

[1] Publications concerned with reading in the primary grades are not included in this list but are found in the list of selected references appearing in the April number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

furthermore, that no one remedial procedure can be used for all types of disabilities.

406. BETTS, EMMETT A., EVERETT, MABEL, and RODEWALD, FRANCES. "Remedial Reading Based on First-Teaching," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, II (February, 1936), 88–91.

Presents conclusions based on informal experimentation with a group of thirty-seven children in Grades I–VII, inclusive, who applied for special help in reading during the summer of 1935.

407. BRUNOT, EUGENIA. "Books for Boys and Girls Who Don't Like To Read," *Elementary English Review*, XII (November, 1935), 219–22.

Discusses some of the common obstacles to children's enjoyment of books and suggests themes and titles which might appeal to children who do not like to read.

408. BUCKINGHAM, B. R., and DOLCH, E. W. *A Combined Word List.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936. Pp. iv+186.

Presents a tentative vocabulary list for Grades II–VIII, inclusive, which combines the results of an original vocabulary study involving over 20,000 children and 2,700,000 words and the words of other vocabulary studies previously reported.

409. CARR, JOHN W. "The Approach to Reading as a Meaningful Process," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (April, 1936), 145–48.

Emphasizes the fact that reading is primarily a thinking process and that the recognition of words and of meanings is a unified process.

410. DURRELL, D. D. "Providing for Individual Differences in Reading," *Education*, LVI (September, 1935), 30–36.

Describes "school provisions for children with severe handicaps in reading" and methods of "discovering and providing for individual differences in the regular classroom."

411. DURRELL, D. D. (Chairman). "Research Problems in Reading in the Elementary School," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (March, April, and May, 1936), 101–6, 111; 149–56; 184–93. Also published as Fourth Annual Research Bulletin of the National Conference on Research in Elementary School English.

Presents a summary of significant research in the field of elementary-school reading, emphasizes directly or by implication various principles underlying instruction in reading, and identifies problems requiring further investigation.

412. EAMES, THOMAS HARRISON. "A Frequency Study of Physical Handicaps in Reading Disability and Unselected Groups," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (September, 1935), 1–5.

Presents the results of an examination of 100 reading-disability cases and a control group of 143 unselected school children to determine physical handicaps "which have been demonstrated as causative factors in reading disability."

413. ENGLEMAN, F. E. "The Relative Merits of Two Forms of Discourse When Applied to Children's Factual Content Reading Material," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (March, 1936), 524–31.

Presents the results of a study to determine the relative merits of conversational and of narrative-expository material when used in Grades IV and VII.

414. FINCK, EDGAR M. "Relation of Ability in Reading to Success in Other Subjects," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (December, 1935), 260–67.

Presents the results of a study in Grades IV–VIII, inclusive, showing "that improvement in ability to read is accompanied by improved achievement in those subjects which involve a great deal of reading."

415. GATES, ARTHUR I., and BOND, GUY L. "Reading Readiness: A Study of Factors Determining Success and Failure in Beginning Reading," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVII (May, 1936), 679–85.

Reports results of a study of four, large, first-grade classes of children who were given instruction in reading shortly after entering school.

416. GOODYKOONTZ, BESS. "The Relation of Pictures to Reading Comprehension," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (April, 1936), 125–30.

Points out the fact that the relation of pictures to comprehension has been emphasized frequently of late and reviews the characteristics of pictures if they are to serve effectively in motivating reading.

417. GRAY, WILLIAM S. "Summary of Reading Investigations," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (February, 1936), 407–32.

A brief summary of investigations relating to reading published between July 1, 1934, and June 30, 1935.

418. GRAY, WILLIAM S. "The Place of Oral Reading in an Improved Program of Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1936), 517–26.

Reviews briefly the decline of oral reading during the last three decades, considers whether this trend harmonizes with sound educational policy, and discusses values inherent in oral reading and methods of attaining them.

419. HOCKETT, JOHN A. "Reading Interests of Z-Section Pupils," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (September, 1935), 26–34.

Presents findings on the difficulty and the interest appeal of sixty-four books from a list of more than a thousand reported "by intermediate-grade pupils in Z-section classes."

420. KELLEY, VICTOR H. "The Reading Abilities of Spanish and English Speaking Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (November, 1935), 209–11.

Reports the results of a study among 692 pupils in Grades IV–VIII, inclusive, to determine "the reading abilities of Spanish- and English-speaking children"

and "the particular phases of reading in which the Spanish-speaking children are deficient."

421. McCALLISTER, JAMES M. *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. xviii+300.

Interprets the results of five years of experimental work in terms of the practical problems involved in diagnosing and correcting reading deficiencies and in guiding reading activities in the study of content fields.

422. PAYNE, ANNA. "An Enriched Course in Reading for Grade Six," *Elementary English Review*, XII (December, 1935), 268–70; XIII (January, 1936), 25–28.

Describes various phases of a reading course for Grade VI that has a two-fold objective: to develop power in reading and to promote appreciation.

423. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "An Experiment in Teaching Corrective Reading to Eight Seventh-Grade Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (December, 1935), 247–53.

Reports the results of an experiment with a group of poor readers taught by an inexperienced teacher under the direction of the school psychologist.

424. TULCHIN, SIMON H. "Emotional Factors in Reading Disabilities in School Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVI (September, 1935), 443–54.

Discusses the relation of various emotional factors to reading disabilities and presents four case studies which illustrate some of the problems involved.

425. WITTY, PAUL A., and KOPEL, DAVID. "Causation and Diagnosis of Reading Disability," *Journal of Psychology*, II (1936), 161–91.

Evaluates factors associated with poor reading and presents a technique for diagnosis that emphasizes "only those items which are essential in adequate appraisal of reading difficulty and practical in typical schoolroom management."

426. WITTY, PAUL A., and KOPEL, DAVID. "Motivating Remedial Reading: The Interest Factor," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXII (January, 1936), 1–19.

Reviews studies relating to reading interests, presents the results of a study of the interests of poor readers, and "describes a remedial technique based upon the utilization of ascertained interests."

427. WITTY, PAUL A., and LABRANT, LOU L. "Aims and Methods in Reading Instruction," *Educational Trends*, IV (June, 1936), 5–9, 18.

Emphasizes the facts that reading is a thought-process, that it should serve the interests and needs of the pupil, and that it should be so presented that every child "may sense and experience success."

428. WOODY, CLIFFORD, and KEELER, L. W. "The Improvement of Reading in the Elementary and Secondary School." Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau

of Educational Reference and Research, School of Education, University of Michigan. Pp. 97 (mimeographed).

Deals with practical problems involved in improving instruction in reading, such as "aims" and methods of realizing them, "diagnosis and remedial instruction," "reading readiness," etc.

429. WORLTON, J. T. "Individualizing Instruction in Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (June, 1936), 735–47.

Presents data showing the spread in reading ability at each grade level from Grade III to Grade VII and describes the methods and results of an experiment which aimed to provide for the varying needs of the pupils.

430. WRIGHT, ETHEL C. "The Thorndike Library Viewed by a Children's Librarian," *Elementary English Review*, XII (December, 1935), 264–67.

Presents the results of informal experimentation to determine the value and appeal of "The Thorndike Library," which includes seven simplified classics for children.

431. YOAKAM, G. A. "The Improvement of Reading in the Middle Grades," *Education*, LVI (September, 1935), 1–6.

Discusses possible causes of slow progress in reading by many pupils in the middle grades and lists the general and specific abilities for which teachers should provide if they would promote "steady improvement in reading."

432. YOAKAM, G. A. "The Improvement of Reading and Study Habits," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (November, 1935), 175–84.

Discusses the responsibility of the school for teaching reading and study habits, outlines basic problems in teaching pupils to study, and presents practical measures for improving study habits.

ENGLISH[1]

R. L. LYMAN

433. BETTS, EMMETT A. "An Experimental Appraisal of Certain Techniques for the Study of Oral Language Activities," *Education*, LVI (January, 1936), 301–4.

A description and evaluation of the University of Iowa method of research in oral English, involving the use of an electric recording apparatus.

434. BROWN, MERLE. "A Study of the Vocabulary Used in Oral Expression by a Group of Fourth Grade Children," *Educational Method*, XV (October, 1935), 39–44.

Side lights on the topics on which a group of 45 children talk freely; the placement of 2,764 words and their 38,898 frequencies with reference to the Thorndike list of 10,000 words. The first 1,000 words of this list form the chief vocabulary of fourth-grade pupils.

[1] See also Item 303 in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1936, number of the *School Review* and Items 467, 468, and 471 in this list.

435. BUTTON, NELLE. *Creative English.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1935. Pp. x+240.

A frank exposition of the author's methods of teaching creative writing. The chapter on the training of the senses is especially suggestive.

436. CRAWFORD, C. C., and ROYER, MADIE M. "Oral Drill versus Grammar Study," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1935), 116–19.

An experimental study which indicates that the oral-drill approach is fully as effective as elaborate work on grammar rules accompanied by the writing of original sentences.

437. DALE, EDGAR. "Teaching Motion-Picture Appreciation," *Harvard Teachers Record*, VI (February, 1936), 23–28.

Faces the issue: "Shall we face reality [about war, poverty, marriage, sex] or shall we avoid it through escape religion, escape literature, escape movies? . . . . Is art a mental monastery in which we can avoid the rigors of an unkind world?"

438. DAWSON, MILDRED A. "Recent Sixth Grade Language Textbooks," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (March, 1936), 85–89, 100.

Analysis of recent books reveals a decreasing emphasis on language technicalities and a corresponding increase in practical exercises in communication and study helps; more attention to individual needs, to socialized procedures, to self-help features, including cumulative standards of appraisal.

439. *An Experience Curriculum in English.* Report of the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English. English Monograph No. 4. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. xx+324. $1.75.

The most important document issued in many years dealing with English problems of the elementary-school, secondary-school, and college levels. Stresses the "social emergence" of the curriculum; promulgates the activity-integration program; advances instrumental grammar and functional composition; avoids grade placement of materials; and in general meets the principles of "progressive theories of education."

440. FISHER, MARY SHATTUCK. *Language Patterns of Preschool Children.* Child Development Monographs, No. 15. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. xvi+88.

Analysis showed "consistently high proportion of remarks about the self at all age levels" and an increase at successive age levels of remarks about other people and of questions and commands. Author concludes that chronological age is probably more important than mental age in determining the various stages of language development.

441. FULLER, LORRAINE. "The Effect of Kindergarten Speech Training on Primary Grade Progress and Achievement of Children with Foreign Language Handicaps," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, IV (August, 1935), 165–73.

Data indicate the value of speech training in the kindergarten to assure greater language and reading readiness in the early grades.

442. GREENE, HARRY A. "Research Technics Peculiar to English," *The Application of Research Findings to Current Educational Practices*, pp. 133–39. Official Report of the American Educational Research Association, 1935. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1935.

A survey of the strength and weaknesses of six vital research procedures for investigations in the field of English.

443. HORNER, ZELDA. "An Observation and Preliminary Investigation of Choral Speaking," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of the City of New York*, XVIII (May, 1936), 18–25.

Concludes that choral speaking has greater possibilities than any other means for accomplishing the aims of teaching oral interpretation.

444. LEWIS, RICHARD B., and ROBERTS, HOLLAND D. "Foundations of the School Verse Speaking Choir," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XI (February, 1936), 98–100.

A highly selective bibliography of the choral-speech movement in the United States.

445. LITTWIN, MAXWELL F. "An Experimental Investigation of the Effect of Method of Presentation upon the Imaginative Quality of Descriptive Writing among Elementary-School Pupils," *Journal of Experimental Education*, IV (September, 1935), 44–49.

Indicates the superiority of methods of teaching, in the following order: direct sense-training method, literary-model method, and picture-study method.

446. LITTWIN, MAXWELL F. "Three Methods of Developing Imagination in Pupils' Writing," *English Journal*, XXIV (October, 1935), 654–61.

Describes an admirable experiment in three methods of teaching—picture study, literary model, and sense-training—designed to develop the creative aspects of composition.

447. LONGSTAFF, H. P. "Effectiveness of Children's Radio Programs," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XX (April, 1936), 208–20.

Radio programs appear to be equally popular with accelerated, average, and retarded pupils in a group of 1,020 children. The intelligence of the listeners plays little part in determining who listens or what programs are recalled. The order of popularity was as follows: Jimmy Allen, Jack Armstrong, Buck Rogers, Orphan Annie, Skippy, "Deep-Sea Adventures of Davy Jones."

448. LOWEN, MAUD B. "The Effect of Environment on Creative Ability in Fourth-Grade Children," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1935), 120–26.

Compares the poetry written by a group of children of underprivileged home environment with the creative work of pupils from more favored home conditions. Indicates that home environment, whether good or poor, has little effect on pupils' creative work; that high or low intelligence quotient is not predictive of creative ability; and that girls excel boys in this capacity.

449. MacLatchy, Josephine (Chairman). "A Bibliography of Unpublished Studies in Elementary School English, 1925–1934," *Elementary English Review*, XII (December, 1935), 260–63, 67; XIII (January and February, 1936), 20–24, 28; 58–62, 65.

A valuable bibliography of seventy-seven significant researches in all phases of elementary-school English prepared as Masters' and Doctors' theses in various universities.

450. Magdanz, Frances. "English Takes the Open Road," *Progressive Education*, XIII (May, 1936), 340–44.

An admirable statement of the English program of the "progressive" school.

451. Stagner, Ross. "Judgments of Voice and Personality," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVII (April, 1936), 272–77.

Presents ratings of ten speakers by twenty-five judges for general impression, voice intensity, flow of speech, poise, clearness, aggressiveness, and nervousness. Indicates that judges are influenced by specific vocal characteristics in appraising personality traits. A challenging type of study for specialists in oral English and speech.

452. Swineford, Frances. "The Effect of Motivation on Scores on a Grammar Test," *School Review*, XLIV (June, 1936), 434–44.

One of the mildest forms of motivation, namely, a desire on the part of pupils to improve their scores, produces improvement in the second form of grammar test and appeals most effectively to pupils of upper mental-age levels.

453. Wrightstone, J. Wayne. "Achievements in English in Activity Programs," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (March, 1936), 94–96.

Evidence from a modest objective investigation is advanced to support the conclusion that the newer-type (activity) programs produce proficiency in language as compared with the older-type (subject-matter) schools. The distinctions between the two programs are not sharply drawn.

SPELLING[1]

Frederick S. Breed

454. Almack, John C., and Staffelbach, Elmer H. "An Experimental Study of Individual Improvement in Spelling," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (September, 1935), 6–11.

Indicates that spelling achievement may be improved by using an association technique to discover words whose meaning but not spelling has been acquired and then teaching these words. Spelling errors in later compositions were thus reduced about 2 per cent.

455. Breed, Frederick S., and Carpenter, Irene M. Standard Self-administering Spelling Test. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1936.

[1] See also Item 384 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1936, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 466 in this list.

A test in two forms, administered without dictation, for Grades II–VIII. A manual of directions with norms and validation data is available.

456. DAVIS, VERA, and SCHRAMMEL, H. E. Davis-Schrammel Spelling Test. Emporia, Kansas: Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College, 1935.

A context test, in Forms A and B, for Grades I–IX. Suitable for group measurement but too short for individual measurement. Validation unreported.

457. FITZGERALD, JAMES A. "The Overlap of Child and Adult Writing Vocabularies," *Journal of Experimental Education*, IV (June, 1936), 364–67.

Reports that in Fitzgerald's writing vocabulary of children and Horn's writing vocabulary of adults 76 per cent of the 100 words of highest rank in each were identical and that 3,300 words of the first vocabulary were contained in the first 5,000 of the second.

458. FREEMAN, FRANK N., GRAY, W. S., and BREED, F. S. "Summaries of Current Practices in the Teaching of Handwriting, Phonics, and Spelling," *Childhood Education*, XII (January, 1936), 173–77.

The last section of the article indicates some of the outstanding features of present-day spelling instruction in the primary grades.

459. GATES, ARTHUR I. *Generalization and Transfer in Spelling*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. vi+80.

Reports results of two elaborate, controlled experiments on the value of generalization in spelling, particularly the use of rules and the grouping of words according to orthographic and phonetic similarities. Concludes that such a program of generalization, while it does not increase ability to spell the words studied, "does tend to increase to some extent the power to spell new words."

460. HOWLAND, HELEN COTTON. "A New Procedure in Teaching Language," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (March, 1936), 90–93, 115.

Describes an informal method of teaching spelling in close relation with handwriting and composition. Evidence concerning the results is not yet adequate for appraisal.

461. MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Course of Study in English Composition, Correct Usage, and Spelling*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Carroll R. Reed, Superintendent of Schools, 1935. Pp. 96.

A bulletin resulting from dissatisfaction with local methods and a desire to examine the teaching of spelling in the light of the trend toward "functional expression in English."

462. SCHONELL, FRED J. "Ability and Disability in Spelling amongst Educated Adults," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, VI (June, 1936), 123–46.

Spelling disability among 598 educated adults was found to be between 4 and 5 per cent and to be due to causes that were (*a*) temperamental, (*b*) intellectual, (*c*) sensory, and (*d*) environmental. The detailed results have suggestive value for educational diagnosticians.

463. WATERMAN, IVAN R., and MELBO, IRVING R. "Evaluation of Spelling Textbooks," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (September, 1935), 44–52.

Presents a set of criteria employed by the California State Curriculum Commission in the evaluation of spelling books. The fact-finding was more scientific than were the interpretations, even to a disinterested observer.

464. WATSON, ALICE E. *Experimental Studies in the Psychology and Pedagogy of Spelling*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 638. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. xii+144.

A report of spelling experiments extending through eight years in elementary and secondary schools. Presents data on the spelling vocabularies of pupils, spelling errors, diagnostic and remedial procedures, and various problems in methods of instruction, including the use of rules and the teaching of homonyms.

465. WISE, CARL T. "The Spelling Difficulty of 1,102 Words Found in Twenty Spellers," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (December, 1935), 281–89.

Presents difficulty values for 1,102 words found in a list of 3,630 words common to eleven or more spelling books but not found in recognized spelling scales.

HANDWRITING

FRANK N. FREEMAN

466. CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE. "Script-Print and Beginning Reading and Spelling," *Elementary English Review*, XIII (April, 1936), 139–41, 160.

Reviews studies of the effect of manuscript writing on reading in the primary grades and presents new evidence concerning its effect on the amount written and on spelling.

467. FREEMAN, FRANK N. "An Evaluation of Manuscript Writing," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1936), 446–55.

A review of the experimental studies bearing on the educational merits of manuscript writing at different grade levels and recommendations based on their findings.

468. GOETSCH, WALTER R. "The Effect of Early Handwriting Instruction," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (December, 1935), 290–98.

A comparison of the quality and the speed of the cursive handwriting in the middle grades of children who began with cursive and children who began with manuscript writing.

469. KIRK, WINIFRED DAY, and KIRK, SAMUEL A. "The Influence of the Teacher's Handedness on Children's Reversal Tendencies in Writing," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XLVII (December, 1935), 473–77.

An experimental study in which no relation was found between the hand used by the teacher in setting the copy and the reversals made by children.

470. LOURENÇO, M. BERGSTRÖM. "The ABC Tests: A Method of Verifying the Maturity Necessary To Learn How To Read and Write," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XLVIII (March, 1936), 243–48.

A series of eight prognostic tests used extensively in South America.

471. MELBO, IRVING R., and WATERMAN, IVAN R. "Evaluation of Textbook Materials in Handwriting," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (November, 1935), 204–10.

A statement of criteria for the evaluation of textbooks in handwriting and an account of the application of these criteria to nine textbooks.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES[1]

R. M. TRYON

472. ALVORD, WAYNE. "History That Works," *Nebraska Educational Journal*, XVI (February, 1936), 56, 69.

A suggested setup for history instruction intended to stimulate independent pupil thinking and to result in genuine interest and learning instead of encyclopedic knowledge.

473. BROWN, WILLIAM B. "Functional Social Studies for the Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, X (October, 1935), 439–44.

A statement of the philosophy underlying, and the principles governing, a so-called "new course" in the social sciences for Grade IX.

474. COLE, LILLIAN. "Projects in the Social Sciences," *Sierra Educational News*, XXXI (October, 1935), 60–62.

A discussion showing the educational value of both individual and group projects in the social sciences.

475. CONLON, FLORENCE D. "The Integration of Art and Social Studies in the Elementary School: The Unit Approach in the Study of Indian Life," *Educational Method*, XV (January, 1936), 208–14.

Outlines an art unit with auxiliary development of social-studies activities. Strongly upholds art as a complete and worth-while unit in itself.

476. DE BOER, JOHN J. "Civilizing the Social Studies in the Elementary Grades," *Illinois Teacher*, XXIV (November, 1935), 79–80, 96.

An adverse criticism of the present setup in the social sciences in the elementary grades and a plea for a curriculum in this field constructed in the light of what

[1] See also Items 368, 370, and 377 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1936, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

is in comparison with what must be, with the contrast expressed in terms of living realities.

477. FALLIS, CLARE R. "The Project Method in History," *School* (Elementary Edition), XXIV (April, 1936), 697–98.

Suggested projects for use in history classes, with a warning against too much dependence on this method of instruction.

478. HALTER, HELEN. *Society in Action:* A Guide for the Social Studies. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1936. Pp. x+336.

A volume full of practical suggestions for a social-science program suitable for Grades VII, VIII, and IX. The suggestions pertain to content and procedure. A practical guide for the teacher's use.

479. HILLDRUP, R. LEROY. "Predilections in the New Social Studies Curriculum," *Virginia Journal of Education*, XXIX (December, 1935), 118–20.

Pertinent comments on the new curriculum in the social sciences for the state of Virginia. Attention is called to the pedagogical dangers inherent in the words "integration" and "flexibility" as used by the authors of the plan.

480. HOFFMAN, ROSS J. S. "Education and the Attack on History," *American Review*, VI (January, 1936), 257–70.

A discussion of the present social-science revolt against history, which is demanding the liberation of the social sciences from the domination of history. Suggests emphasizing the present at the expense of the past and substituting sociology for history.

481. KELTY, MARY G. *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936. Pp. viii+694.

A presentation of the psychological and the social foundations of intermediate-grade history, together with detailed plans and suggestions for learning and teaching early and later American history and the beginnings of civilization.

482. KLING, EVELYN LOVETT. "The Use of Visual Aids in Teaching History and Geography: An Illustration," *Educational Screen*, XIV (September, 1935), 200, 202, 203.

An account of the use made of visual aids in Grade V and the benefits derived from the plan.

483. KOCH, MARGARET A. "Social Studies and the Correlated Courses," *Progressive Education*, XII (November, 1935), 458–61.

Contains much sound, sane, and sensible advice with respect to the establishment of certain desirable relations between the social sciences and other subjects.

484. KOOPMAN, G. ROBERT. "Helping Children Face Social Realities," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, X (September, 1935), 15–19.

Suggests ten ways of making social-science work realistic to junior high school pupils.

485. MOORE, EOLINE WALLACE. "Our State—A Social Studies Unit for Upper Grades," *Educational Method*, XV (February, 1936), 272–74.

An account of the research activities carried on by a class of student teachers in organizing a unit for the study of their state.

486. MULAIK, STANLEY B. "Content and Correlation of the Major Subjects of the Curriculum with Social Studies," *Texas Outlook*, XX (February, 1936), 34–35.

An argument in favor of correlating the social sciences with other subjects to the end that all connected with the educational enterprise will be benefited.

487. NIETZ, JOHN A. "Guiding Principles in Teaching the Social Studies," *Education*, LVI (January, 1936), 314–16.

Lists in co-ordinate form opinions regarding the objectives, curriculum, and methods of teaching the social studies.

488. OAGLEY, EDITH BROOKS. "The Social Studies and the Art of Living," *New York State Education*, XXIII (January, 1936), 322–26, 349–52.

A somewhat wordy and lengthy plea for more action and less academic emphasis in the teaching of geography, civics, and history in the elementary and junior high schools.

489. ROGERS, MINNIE E., and HENNESSEY, JULIA F. "An Experiment in Low-Seven Social Studies," *University High School Journal*, XIV (December, 1935), 88–93.

A brief description of an attempt to adjust content and method in English and so-called "social studies" to the needs, interests, and capacities of first-semester pupils of a junior high school in California.

490. WATSON, EMMA. "Teaching Procedures and Social Studies," *Texas Outlook*, XX (June, 1936), 19–20.

A blanket indictment of traditional methods of teaching the social sciences, along with some pertinent suggestions relating to the socialized recitation and the problem assignment.

491. WEAVER, ROBERT B. "Why Sugar-Coat Social Science?" *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, X (February, 1936), 342–47.

Suggestions for making social-science courses interesting to pupils without any of the "sugar-coating" of the child-centered courses. Outlines a six-step program of instruction which will appeal to boys and girls.

492. WILLIS, MARGARET. "The Real Task of the Social Studies: Some Implications," *Progressive Education*, XIII (April, 1936), 282–85.

A few pertinent suggestions concerning the directions in which radical revision of the curriculum in the social sciences might proceed.

493. WOESTEMEYER, INA FAYE. "What Shall We Teach in History?" *Kansas Teacher*, XLII (February, 1936), 7–8.

Suggested conceptions to be developed in connection with the teaching of history. The resultant values are outlined.

GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

The following list was derived from a canvass of material published since August 1, 1935. It includes those publications which seem to be the more helpful, significant contributions. Some articles were excluded because of their brevity and because of the fact that they duplicated, in essence, longer treatments included.

494. AITKEN, W. E. M. "Geography for Grades V–VIII," *School* (Elementary Edition), XXIV (October, 1935, to June, 1936), 122–26, 209–13, 303–6, 397–401, 490–94, 582–86, 672–76, 766–70, 856–58.

Makes specific suggestions for geography work in Grades V–VIII.

495. BLOOD, PEARLE. "The Preparation of Geography Units by Student Teachers," *Journal of Geography*, XXXV (January, 1936), 18–24.

Presents excellent instruction for the preparation of plans for teaching elementary units in geography. Though designed primarily for the use of student teachers, the article is exceedingly valuable for experienced teachers.

496. CAIN, MAUD. "A Study of Thirteen Standard Geography Tests," *Journal of Geography*, XXXIV (September, 1935), 252–56.

Analyzes standard tests to discover dominant kinds of geographic questions contained.

497. GOEBEL, ANNE. "Some Learning Difficulties in Geography," *Nebraska Educational Journal*, XV (September, 1935), 279, 302.

Calls attention to a few terms and ideas that children must master in order to avoid various learning difficulties.

498. HALVERSON, LYNN H. "A Quantitative Analytical Comparison of Geography Textbooks," *Journal of Geography*, XXXV (February, 1936), 60–67.

Outlines points to be considered in the evaluation of textbooks in geography, basing selection of points on the requisites of effective geography-teaching.

499. HARRINGTON, ELDRED R. "On the Teaching of Geography," *Educational Method*, XV (February, 1936), 255–58.

Stresses necessity in geographic work of giving children opportunity to think and gives numerous examples of specific questions which provoke thinking.

500. KUSCH, MONICA HENRIETTA. "An Experiment in Fifth Grade Field Work," *Journal of Geography*, XXXV (May, 1936), 179–85.

Discusses values of field work at elementary level with concrete illustrations of field trips conducted in Cleveland.

501. MELBO, IRVING R., and WATERMAN, IVAN R. "Pictures in Geography Textbooks," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1936), 362–76.

Reports an examination of pictures in textbooks in terms of number, size, content, legibility, and the like.

502. MILLER, GEORGE J. (Editor). *Life in Asia.* Geographic Education Series. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight, 1936. Pp. 346.

Contains a compilation of articles from the *Journal of Geography* that pertain to the organization of geographic material dealing with Asia.

503. MILLER, GEORGE J. "Geography in Education," *School and Society*, XLIII (April 18, 1936), 526–32.

Treats present status and distinctive character of geography. Illustrates geographic interpretation in terms of the Italian-Ethiopian situation.

504. MOYER, JOSEPHINE, and TAYLOR, FRANCES E. "Introduction of the Map to Fourth Grade Children," *Journal of Geography*, XXXIV (September, 1935), 249–52.

Describes a museum lesson designed to help children visualize actual features represented on a relief map of North America.

505. PARKER, EDITH P. "The Breadth and Depth of Preparation in Specific Teaching Fields," and discussion by Arthur K. Loomis, *The Academic and Professional Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers*, pp. 170–86. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. VII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.

States amount and kind of preparation necessary for effective training of teachers of geography.

506. PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, BUREAU OF EDUCATION. *Course of Study in Geography for Grades IV–V:* Vol. I, pp. 176; Vol. II, pp. 162. Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1934.

Helpfully outlines units and teaching procedures.

507. RENNER, GEORGE T., JR., "Blackboard Wall Maps," *Journal of Geography*, XXXIV (December, 1935), 369–74.

Describes a method of drawing highly generalized or conventionalized blackboard "special-purpose" maps—economical both in time and expense.

508. RIDGLEY, DOUGLAS C. "A Lesson with World Maps," *Journal of Geography*, XXXIV (December, 1935), 377–79.

Suggests a specific exercise for helping children identify on a globe portions of the earth's surface represented on various kinds of maps.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Legal aspects of education.—For adequate mastery of American educational statecraft a knowledge of past and current progress in public-school law is essential. Study of school legislation alone is not sufficient. To this study must be added observation of the constant stream of court decisions which construe the statutes and establish and modify a host of precedents, defining to a large extent the place that public education occupies in the social scene. Note that legal precedents are not immutable, that they are being changed more or less continuously to fit newly recognized necessities. How many school superintendents are now prepared to say specifically in which direction the currently accepted principles of what may be called the "common law of American education" ought to develop?

As yet only a scant few graduate schools of education offer respectable instruction in school law or encourage research in this field. Among these few the University of Chicago is numbered, and this review examines two products of its enterprise, doctoral dissertations in school law.

Garber,[1] now of the State Teachers College at Mankato, Minnesota, first searched the debates of constitutional conventions in thirty-seven states for the views expressed regarding the relation of public education to the safety of the state, individual and collective economic well-being, and social progress. What he found is heartening, and his disclosures of the discussions of such issues as public versus private responsibility for education and state versus local responsibility and authority will be revealing to many readers.

Next, Garber studied some 450 leading decisions of the higher courts bearing on these and related topics, and the result is a readable and informative exposition of the principles now forming the basic common law of education as a function of the American state. With some reluctance it must be said that he has, for the most part, viewed these principles uncritically and has made little or no attempt to envision what they will be or ought to be a decade or a generation hence. He has, however, stated them so clearly and correctly that they stand ready for more critical and prophetic examination, to which we may venture a hope that Garber himself will contribute.

[1] Lee O. Garber, *Education as a Function of the State:* Its Legal Implications. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 1934. Pp. viii+100.

Punke, now of the Georgia State Woman's College at Valdosta, gives us a much-needed study[1] of a somewhat less philosophical theme, yet one of great social significance, as well as of immediate practical value to school boards, superintendents, and business officers. Here is a smoothly written, well-organized, and readily intelligible digest of more than nine hundred important court decisions affecting all phases of the acquisition and the management of public-school property. The acquisition of buildings and sites, construction contracts, contractors' surety bonds, purchases of equipment and supplies, and the sale or other disposition of school property are among the topics receiving treatment in one or more chapters each.

Perhaps most interesting to those not immediately concerned with property responsibility is the brief chapter on the use of school property for community purposes by organizations other than the school. Here the reader wishes that Punke had been a little less laconic and had permitted himself to elaborate and reflect aloud at some length, but such elaboration is perhaps as well reserved for a different place.

M. M. CHAMBERS

AMERICAN YOUTH COMMISSION OF THE
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Education and pressure groups in America.—In a recent book[2] an attempt is made to give "an educational interpretation of the nature and interplay of organized interests in American society" (p. 3), as determined through a study of "their literature, their reported activities, and the comments of their national leaders, often in personal interview" (p. 8).

The first of the ten chapters defines pressure groups, shows their influence on cultural change in and out of the school, and urges educators to manifest interest in cultural change. Chapter ii discusses the federal investigation of public utilities as an apt illustration of how private interests play on popular prejudice; how they influence schools through informational pamphlets, textbook selection, and retainers paid to professors; and how the refusal of an orthodox public mind to understand industrial change plays into the hands of the utilities. Chapter iii, "Nationalism for Teacher, Textbook, and Student," concerns nationalistic attitudes and activities of "patriotic" groups, loyalty oaths for teachers, military training in public high schools and colleges, and nationalism and peace in textbooks. Chapter iv is devoted to the schools and organized religion, and attention is given to rites and celebrations in the schools, religious bias in selecting school personnel, religious instruction in and out of school, and state support for parochial schools. Chapter v deals with six crucial questions in the problem of securing public support for "free" education: How much free

[1] Harold H. Punke, *The Courts and Public-School Property.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xvi+314. $3.00.

[2] Bruce Raup, *Education and Organized Interests in America.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936. Pp. vi+238. $2.50.

schooling shall be offered? What amount of schooling shall be provided for pupils of low mentality? Can America provide an enriched curriculum for all? Shall one political-geographic area be responsible for school support outside that area? Shall educational claims take precedence over claims for other public service? Should the educational profession have anything to say about taxes and support?

Chapters vi and vii deal with "Elements of Crisis in American Culture." Chapter vi treats particular issues, such as preparedness and war, the preservation of our institutions, competition and private profit, governmental interference in business, and "rights" of taxpayers. Chapter vii treats concepts, such as authoritarianism in America (church and state), the function of the teaching profession, the relation of the school to the community, the discipline of labor for pupils slow in academic learning, and the idea of the school's "presenting all sides fairly." By means of a chart showing the attitudes of forty-six groups on twenty-six issues, chapter viii gives graphically the positions taken by organized groups on the public issues set forth in chapters vi and vii. Chapter ix considers in detail what the school should do regarding controversial issues; reproduces the questionnaire used in securing data on this point; and presents the essential findings in charts, graphs, and discussion. The author notes that many groups reflect the same policy on several issues, but for widely diverse reasons. The concluding chapter is largely interpretative and relates chiefly to the public and the educator's function. The author sketches and discards different philosophies of adjustment, to arrive at his own view; he believes that there should be movement toward a clearly conceived goal, through a sequence of encouraging steps, with toleration of digressions which seem expedient at particular moments.

Extensive quotations consume space but give direct contact with group attitudes. Selection of quotations could pervert the stand taken by groups, but the author seems to have avoided this difficulty. Quotations are adequately documented. The author is correct in anticipating that readers will sense repetition, but the quotation method makes it difficult to avoid this defect. However, detail in presenting and analyzing material—in chapter ix, for example—might have been reduced. Moreover, some readers might like the evidence for such statements as, "America has the potential wealth for a universal rich education" (p. 112).

In spite of scattered weaknesses, however, the author has ably surveyed the scope and demonstrated the importance of pressure groups in educational policy and practice in America; has given considerable insight into the methods of such groups; has shown how difficult it is for the school to be fair and unbiased in a society conditioned in general for maintaining the status quo; and has shown that an understanding of pressure groups is important to educators who are conscientiously interested in the rôle of their profession in a democratic society. The book should appeal to both teachers and administrators and should provide valuable reading for all students of social problems.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

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Parents and children.—The field of parent education has expanded tremendously during the past fifteen years. Various workers, including psychologists, have attempted to place parent education on a scientific basis. It has been recognized that the attitudes and the behavior of parents are of tremendous influence in fashioning the personalities of their children. It is not easy, however, to determine the attitudes of parents toward their children because direct questioning is of relatively little value. Various methods have therefore been devised in the past in attempts to identify parental attitudes.

The present volume[1] reports the study of parent-child relationships as shown in clinical case studies. The data were drawn from the case records assembled by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. The purpose of the author's study was to determine the effect of this parent-child relationship on the personality development of the child. The specific data collected were examples of different parental reactions to children. The cases were selected to include a wide range of children's problems in order that, as the author states, samples of a range of parental behavior might also be included.

"Sixteen cases representing a wide range of children's problems were selected" (p. 45). From these records every statement of parents' reactions to children, their ideas and opinions, and their interpretations of their feelings toward the children were listed on cards and given to a selected number of judges for ranking. These judges were selected from twenty-five clinics, and sixteen of the clinics returned the rankings filled in by one or more persons.

From the studies of the responses of the judges and of the case records, a number of conclusions were drawn. Among these are the following: that disturbances like enuresis appear to be associated with rejection by the father accompanied by rejection or over-protection by the mother; that those children who are judged to be rejected by both parents have the greatest number of aggressive behavior problems. It is impossible in a short review to list the various conclusions reached by the author, but the two mentioned indicate the general trend of the author's statements. It is curious to notice, for example, that either rejection or over-protection by the mother plays an important rôle in the development of enuresis. It is difficult indeed to understand how two such opposite types of behavior may produce a similar result. Obviously, therefore, neither of these two types of behavior can be of importance.

The study presents a courageous attempt to evaluate clinical case studies for the purpose of understanding the importance of parent-child relationships. It is one of the few studies of clinical case records which has been scientifically conducted and carefully evaluated. Unfortunately, the rambling style and the inclusion in a great many places of irrelevant matter make the report extremely difficult to read. One sometimes suspects that an author who is writing a short monograph feels that it is his duty to expand the material as much as possible

[1] Marian J. Fitz-Simons, *Some Parent-Child Relationships:* As Shown in Clinical Case Studies. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 643. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. xii+162. $1.75.

and that, for this reason, irrelevant material finds its way into the presentation. It may be, of course, that the difficulties inherent in the material reported are responsible for the manner of presentation.

MANDEL SHERMAN

The scientist at work.—The sixth book[1] of a series of science readers written for use in elementary schools tells about some of the subjects that scientists study and some of the facts that they have learned. The material is organized into five units, relating to earth sciences and astronomy, biology, physics, science in industry and art, and the ways that science helps progress. The sections of each unit have been written by men and women who are outstanding students in their fields of interest. At the close of each section are given a number of activities that are intended to direct and to extend the further study of the young reader. At the close of the book is a list of references that suggest profitable reading on the subjects discussed.

The authors have attempted to show the intimate association of the work of scientists with the development of industry and art by telling how different kinds of pictures are made, how glass-making developed, how common metals are derived, how rubber is prepared, and how science is related to the development of the present methods of transportation. Through word pictures, appropriate illustrations, and suggested things to do, the reader is given an idea of some of the experiences which scientists have had in their work. In this way an attempt has been made to give an understanding and appreciation of the way in which a scientist works and of some of his outstanding characteristics, such as diligence, patience, exactness, sincerity, and open-mindedness. The idea has been emphasized that many of the things commonly used today are the result of patient experimentation and study by numbers of workers.

The style of the book is dignified and direct, but at times it seems a bit too formal to be of greatest interest to the elementary-school child. The print is large and clear. The book is well and appropriately illustrated by pictures and drawings in black and white. The cover is attractive. This book should be valuable for use in the elementary school both as a science reader and as a reference book.

FLORENCE G. BILLIG

WAYNE UNIVERSITY, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

Orientation material for courses in current problems.—A strong emphasis at all levels of instruction on current affairs has been an outstanding characteristic of courses in the social sciences for a decade or more. The chief difficulty encountered by those desiring to acquaint pupils with current happenings has been the lack of suitable background material, systematically organized. To meet this

[1] Edith M. Patch and Harrison E. Howe, *The Work of Scientists.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. viii+488. $0.76.

difficulty is the chief objective of three volumes[1] which treat a limited number of current problems universally recognized as significant. As indicated by the titles, these volumes are concerned with problems relating to national issues, social and economic planning, and international issues.

The material in Volume I of the series is organized in terms of the traditional categories: economic, social, and governmental or political. The use of these categories in classifying the material may on first thought seem advisable, but, when the problems under each are analyzed, few or any of them fall completely within the category. For example, "Problems of the Family" is the title of a chapter under the general head "Social Problems." Such a classification will probably hinder more than help high-school pupils who are hyper-conscious of the pressing economic problems faced by their families. However, in the hands of a teacher who makes no attempt strictly to organize the material that he presents in terms of the traditional categories—social, economic, and political—the discussions of the twenty problems which this volume contains will prove of great value.

The foregoing comments with respect to the use of the traditional categories in organizing material apply to Volume II with almost equal pertinency. In this volume is included material on economic planning and social planning, the expression "changes in government" being used instead of "government problems" as in Volume I. In Volume III certain international issues are treated co-ordinately with no attempt to classify them, the nature of these issues making a general classification both undesirable and impractical.

Passing from the organization of the material to the material itself, the reviewer desires to congratulate the authors on their excellent selection and attractive presentation. The problems and issues selected for consideration are not those of another age, but the pressing problems of our own time, the difficulties with which the present generation of pupils will have to grapple. To have available for use in high-school classes discussions of these problems and issues such as these volumes contain is a blessing which the reviewer hopes many, many teachers will enjoy.

Justice would not be done to these worth-while volumes if mention were not made of the excellent teaching aids with which they are equipped. Pertinent illustrations, graphs, charts, and diagrams are scattered here and there throughout each book. All these aids to instruction have been well selected and well placed. At the close of most of the chapters appear such teaching aids as questions, activities, topics for further study and report in class, a vocabulary test, and references for easy and more difficult reading. If a generation of high-school pupils could be given the opportunity to study the content, read the suggested reading, answer the questions, master the vocabularies, and do the exercises con-

[1] Dudley S. Brainard and Leslie D. Zeleny, *Problems of Our Times:* Vol. I, Fundamental National Issues, pp. xvi+200; Vol. II, Economic and Social Planning, pp. xvi+350; Vol. III, International Issues, pp. xviii+224. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1935 and 1936.

tained in these three volumes, the future of democratic government in this country would be greatly safeguarded. Knowledge of, and practice in thinking about, problems of their own time are gravely needed by the citizens of a country whose destiny lies in their own hands. These volumes supply some of the knowledge and suggest the practice needed by these citizens.

R. M. TRYON

Art appreciation presented in terms of daily experience.—The authors of a new series of *Art Stories*[1] place appreciation in pleasant relation with other phases of art education. The text of the books of the series aims to direct a child's constructive seeing into an awareness which will function in all his experiences.

The underlying plan of the series has been to present the art concepts of color, line, and mass through the daily experiences of childhood, and throughout the books appreciation is suggested not as a new phase of consciousness but as enjoyable observation of familiar objects and situations which may bear constructively on the child's subsequent activities.

By avoiding hackneyed terminology and by keeping "great masterpieces" closely related to childish efforts of expression, the authors present various phases of art as a natural part of childish interest and activity. Thus, the child is not asked to stretch toward conceptions of architecture, sculpture, and painting; from ideas of a toy town or a doghouse, through successive interests in how buildings are planned, made, or improved, he may come to appreciate the beauty of an old-world street or a modern dwelling.

Each book of the series treats successive steps of color, the beauty of living organisms as seen in animals, beautiful rooms, and interesting costumes, as well as drawing, painting, and building. Reading material on each of the phases mentioned has been prepared with careful consideration for expanding interests and growth from one experience to another. Thus, the study of color, which in Book I dealt with the child's pleasures in the bright, pure, rainbow colors and helped him to discover their all-pervasiveness in his world, is extended in Book II to mixed colors and an awareness of light and dark properties of color and their relation to neutral tones. Book III, recalling concepts previously stressed, carries on to the delights of "in-between" colors. The illustrators of the series have made excellent contributions throughout the material dealing with color. Any child must linger happily over the brilliant pages of Easter eggs, the gay parrot, or the garden pools.

Just as color is progressively treated, so each other subdivision, both in text and illustration, suggests a type of seeing and enjoying which should not only bear on the child's technical skill but should affect his entire learning attitude.

Another point to be heartily welcomed for its sound psychology is that the child's creative effort is given place in an artistic tradition and happily related to

[1] William G. Whitford, Edna B. Liek, and William S. Gray, *Art Stories:* Book II, pp. 168, $0.80; Book III, pp. 176, $0.88. Curriculum Foundation Series. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.

some really great expression of a master in this tradition. Thus, the reproduction of a spontaneous line drawing by a little child is seen to have its place in a scheme of illustration which is enriched by a Dürer drawing, and the child is shown that his modeled, lop-eared rabbit is akin to some fine piece of sculpture.

Processes, often the keynote of a child's interest, are shown, and the inherent possibilities and limitations of any material are pointed out. The child is led to discover that expressive drawing or painting transcends mere photographic reality and that pleasing pictures are based not on imitation but on design qualities.

Throughout the series the lively work of illustrators, in the charming end papers, page illustrations, and designs, contributes delightfully to reading material which capitalizes a child's eager curiosity and his willingness to observe. On such a basis children's enjoyment of these books seems assured.

ANN V. HORTON

CLEVELAND MUSEUM OF ART

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

Abstracts—Graduate Theses in Education: Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1931–1936, Vol. II. Compiled and edited by Carter V. Good and Gordon Hendrickson. Cincinnati, Ohio: Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1936. Pp. xx+250. $2.00.

BETTS, EMMETT ALBERT. *The Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties.* Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1936. Pp. xiv+402. $2.00.

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